

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

*Extension of this feature.*—Regular readers of the *School Review* will have noted the recurrence in issues of the last few years of the caption "Here and There among the High Schools," under which we have reported innovating or otherwise unique practices in high schools throughout the country. This new feature has aroused unusual enthusiasm on the part of school heads and teachers desirous of keeping in touch with what other schools are doing, and their interest has motivated us, at the opening of this forty-fourth year of publication of the *School Review*, to include the feature more frequently—every month, in all probability. At the same time, the numbers of practices to be described and of schools represented will be increased, in harmony with the rapidly mounting array of materials that are being submitted by the schools.

While announcing the expansion of this feature, we extend the invitation to administrative officers and teachers to submit materials descriptive of novel practices which have been found helpful in the conduct of their schools. With a reasonable degree of co-operation from our readers, it should not be difficult to establish under this caption of "Here and There among the High Schools" an exchange of innovating practices that will be exceedingly helpful in efforts to

I

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adapt the secondary schools to the increasingly complex services required of them in a time of rapid social change.

The *School Review* will of course continue to carry, in its regular articles, the major descriptions and appraisals of practice which have always characterized its content.

*Developments of vocational training in West High School, Waterloo, Iowa.*—Among vocational portions of the offering in West High School (a three-year senior high school) of Waterloo, Iowa, are curriculums in carpentry and co-operative part-time training in retail selling and office work. The boys enrolled in carpentry each year build a residence under conditions that deserve consideration for emulation in many more communities. The site is acquired and the materials of construction are supplied by the school board. The house, when completed, is sold by the board at a price that covers the necessary outlays. The plan has been in operation long enough to demonstrate its practicability. The co-operative training in retail selling and office work began with the opening of the current school year and enrolls about fifty pupils, who are distributed to fifteen different firms in the city. The plan provides for alternate weeks in school and in employment, the pay for the pupil during the week of employment being at the uniform beginning rate of six dollars. Two other cities in Iowa, Sioux City and Newton, are reported to be maintaining similar programs. Both the home-building project and the co-operative commercial curriculum are forecasts of closer relations between the school and the life of the community, which must increasingly spread beyond vocation into other important areas of complete living.

*A course in consumer education.*—From the high school at Hiram, Ohio, comes a sixteen-page mimeographed publication prepared by Reign S. Hadsell, principal, entitled "Developing Intelligent Consumers: Projects in Consumer Economics." The Foreword states that instruction in this new field began in that high school in 1932-33 as a unit occupying about a week's time in the course in economics. During 1934-35 the work was extended to take about three weeks. Also, during 1933-34 the work was expanded into Hiram High School's first course in adult education. The period of development has permitted extension to the point that the school is this year giv-

ing a half-year course, in which "Developing Intelligent Consumers" is used as the outline or syllabus. Captions in the publication are: "Projects" (in three divisions, namely, "Surveying Consumer Situation," "Agencies To Help the Consumer," and "Voluntary Projects"), "Course Organization Materials for the Teacher," "Library Materials—Books," "Library Materials—Pamphlets," "How To Organize a Pamphlet File on Consumers' Problems," "Organizations Concerned with Consumers' Problems," and "Testing and Service Agencies of Interest to the Consumer." The author makes a charge of fifteen cents for a copy of his publication and requests that cash or stamps be inclosed with the order.

*A program of guidance.*—The vice-principal of the Roosevelt High School in Seattle, Frank Jones Clark, has reported in a mimeographed monograph of more than a hundred pages the program of guidance at work in that school. The title on the cover-page is "Guidance Working Materials for Junior and Senior High Schools: Manual of Practical Helps for Educators." The phases of the program covered in the manual are (1) the assimilation of new pupils, (2) educational guidance, (3) group guidance, and (4) counseling and testing. The concept of guidance on which the program appears to be erected is much more acceptable and practical than that in many recent programs and does not involve detours into character education, instruction in manners, and the like, which, although important, are after all not guidance. An unusually helpful feature of the manual is the reproduction of forty-two forms used in carrying on guidance in Roosevelt High School. The nature and the use of these forms are suggested by the following items from the long list: "Principal-Teacher Estimate of Pupil," "Subject Selection Sheet," "Personal Record Card," "New Student's Entrance Information Blank," "College Plan for Seniors," "Failure Analysis," "Seattle Public Schools High-School Program of Studies," "Four-Year Plan Card, Junior High School," "Call from Employer," and "Application for Employment." The author asks a dollar each for copies of his manual.

*Ratings on citizenship in a junior high school.*—Among practices and school events reported to the *School Review* are many designed to foster school and community citizenship and to develop proper

social attitudes. Under this general heading falls the plan of rating pupils on "citizenship" followed in the Roosevelt Junior High School, New Bedford, Massachusetts, of which Elwyn G. Campbell is principal. The plan now in operation, as reported by Leah E. Pike, "helping teacher," makes known to the entering pupil that the staff is interested, above all else, in helping him to become a good and useful citizen. Report cards in this school, sent out every ten weeks of the school year, include ratings on citizenship ranging through A, B, C, D, and E. The criteria for each of these ratings are rather clearly differentiated and are stated in terms that the pupils can understand. The details of the plan include awarding a school letter to pupils with given numbers of successive A's, awarding stars for each four additional ratings of the same mark, and silver cups to pupils with twelve such ratings.

*A "school-city" plan of pupil participation in school control.*—A frequent plan of training in citizenship calls for pupil participation in school control and administration. The Bloom Township High School at Chicago Heights, Illinois, was one of the first high schools to provide for pupil participation by having its pupils organized as a school city—the "City of Bloom." According to Adeline M. Smith, head of the department of social science in the school and sponsor for the City of Bloom, the plan was adopted in 1923 and is "much the same" now as at the beginning. In her opinion, the plan is one of the most difficult to administer but is a plan that "seemingly gives the best civic training" afforded by plans of pupil participation.

The preamble of the constitution of the city is as follows:

We, the pupils of Bloom Township High School, acknowledging the jurisdiction of the Board of Education and of the faculty, in order to further provide for the common welfare, and to secure the highest possible good to ourselves and to our successors, do ordain and establish this constitution for our organization.

This constitution is studied in the course in citizenship required of all first-year pupils in this four-year high school. The organization of government for the City of Bloom, as outlined in the constitution and the plan of operation, are indicated in the following excerpts from Miss Smith's description.

It provides for a mayor, a treasurer, and a clerk elected for one year. This election is held the last of May; thus, the officers are sworn in and ready for



work when school opens in September. The mayor has large appointive powers and is responsible for the officials selected. He frequently has to warn them and sometimes dismiss them from office. The sponsor usually acts as an advisor, but the pupils are given a chance to show initiative. The officials appointed directly by the mayor are chief of police, commissioner of publicity, commissioner of public improvements, and a fire marshal. These in turn may name any necessary assistants. The mayor also appoints the following standing committees: social committee, program committee, and committee for locker inspection. Others are appointed for various activities throughout the year as needed. . . .

The legislative department is made up of councilmen, presided over by the mayor. These councilmen are chosen from the home-room groups for a semester. Each group has a voting councilman. The council meets weekly. Formerly council meetings were held at 3:15 on alternating Tuesdays, but during the past semester the council has been meeting during the home-room period on school time. Pupils may instruct their representatives to bring up questions in the meeting, and on important matters the councilmen are usually instructed how to vote. Sometimes questions are submitted to the groups for a referendum vote.

The constitution provides that all elected officers must have at least a C in scholarship, and no one having a questionable citizenship record is eligible. The installation of officials, according to Miss Smith, is "one of Bloom's big days, and the young people take the ceremony seriously."

The scope of activities of the City of Bloom is suggested by the following additional excerpts from the statement by its sponsor.

One great problem was to maintain order in the corridors during class periods and to keep pupils from wandering through the halls when they should be in classrooms or study halls. No teachers could be spared for this patrol duty, which in other schools is frequently the teachers' responsibility. This problem was solved by the chief of police, who worked out a plan in which pupils were used as hall guards. These pupils are assigned stations, sign passes of pupils who have permits to go through the halls, and thus prevent loitering. It is necessary to select only dependable boys and girls for these positions, for there is also frequently encountered the problem of the pupil who leaves his locker open or the pupil who tells the combination to someone who uses it to misappropriate property. Strangers visiting the building are courteously received and are given all necessary attention. . . .

The fire department is also well organized. The fire marshal and his assistants, who must be very efficient, have entire charge of fire drills. This service was so well organized that the fire hazard in the old overcrowded building was greatly lessened. While it is not necessary to place so much responsibility on

the fire chief in the new fireproof building, he is still an important official, for he has charge of the ushers at all public programs.

The publicity department, headed by a commissioner with an appointed committee, is responsible for the press reports in the school paper and for advertising school activities. Another department is that of public improvement, which is likewise headed by a commissioner, who has a number of assistants. The outstanding work of this department is the general supervision of the school building and grounds under the direction of the assistant principal.

Other fields of activity of the organization are a lost-and-found department and a second-hand bookstore, both of which render valuable service to the school. . . .

Several years ago the students' loan fund was established to assist pupils who wish to go to college, and each year a sum of money has been added to the fund.

The organization has carried on important welfare work. Sometimes a fund has been set apart to aid needy pupils. One year a student-relief committee was appointed, and a fairly large fund was raised to purchase milk for preschool pupils. Each year Christmas baskets are packed and sent to deserving families. This work is carried on by a committee of pupils assisted by teachers. So far as possible, these baskets go to families not on civic relief. The importance of this work can hardly be overestimated, for it gives the pupils valuable training which will encourage civic consciousness and responsibility.

*Changes in the curriculum.*—Several brief statements descriptive of modifications in the curriculum have been submitted. Herbert H. Archibald, principal of the senior high school at Norwood, Massachusetts, reports the introduction of a "civic curriculum" for "the other 50 per cent"—presumably non-college-going pupils. This curriculum is comprised of three core subjects—English, social studies, and science—in each of the three years of the school, and an elective subject may be taken as a major "to round out the program." The principal expresses the opinion that this curriculum has enough definiteness to offset the disadvantages of the general curriculum, in which English is the only required subject and in which beyond this requirement the pupil is allowed to take "smatterings" in many fields. The objective said to be stressed in this curriculum is better citizenship.

W. B. Andrews, supervising principal of the Van Hornesville (New York) Central School, reports the inauguration of what is there a new course in social studies for Grade X. The work of the course is "grouped about six large elements in our civilization." These six units are concerned with rudimentary society; the development of

man's ability to communicate; the origin and growth of religion; the social phenomena of conflict and co-operation; man's intellectual progress; and government, or "man's organization to insure group protection and welfare."

In the Longfellow Junior High School of Fresno, California, of which A. E. Balch is principal, an integrated curriculum is being developed. The new curriculum is called "Social Living," and in it social science and English are being combined during ten periods each week, with five more periods a week given over to related music, art, and general science.

*Using an observation record form in supervision.*—In the South Junior High School of Salt Lake City, Principal J. B. Driggs has for some years striven to improve his work of supervision through classroom visits by devising and using a "principal's observation record form." He insists that the form which he uses is not a rating device, although, if not used skilfully by a tactful and sympathetic principal, it might be just as objectionable. He regards the use of the form as a first step toward organizing the principal's work so that both he and the teachers will have a record of their efforts to improve instruction. In the main, the items of teaching excellencies on the form follow the arrangement in Anderson, Barr, and Bush's *Visiting the Teacher at Work* and include items under the headings "General Conditions," "The Teacher," "The Pupil," and "The Teaching." The form includes also a place for date, name of teacher, subject or activity observed, commendation, improvement desirable, suggestions, and remarks, as well as space for indicating when a conference may be had with the principal. So that both principal and teacher may have copies, the sheet is made out in duplicate. It is Principal Driggs's belief that the form can be used to arrive at an understanding between "two servants at work on the same job."

#### INCREASED ENROLMENTS IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS

It is just three years since the *School Review* drew from reports by N. W. Ayer and Son indicating losses in enrolments in private boarding schools. The same agency has lately made available a release on enrolments in private schools which shows that the trend is again upward. Possibly the actual proportionate increases are not so great

as the figures indicate, since schools with decreases or no gains would be less likely than other schools to report.

Enrolments in private schools this fall are larger than a year ago in 86 per cent of the schools reporting to N. W. Ayer and Son. These reports are from 202 schools, a cross-section of private schools of all sizes and sorts in all parts of the country.

The total increase amounts to 14 per cent compared with an increase of 8.7 per cent in a similar compilation a year ago. This rate of increase is a little better than was indicated would be the case when preliminary census figures were gathered by the school division of this advertising agency in July.

The increase in tuition income to schools covered in this report will be over \$2,250,000 for this year alone. Many of the new pupils this year will return for several other years of schooling.

The reports show that junior colleges have the largest relative increase of any type of school, although the increase in the attendance at military schools is notable.

The schools in New England tie with those from the South in showing the largest increase in attendance this fall compared with a year ago. Schools in the Mid-West show the least gain as a sectional group. Last year the southern schools were at the head of the list in enrolment increase compared with the previous year. This top place in two successive years reflects the better business conditions in that part of the country, according to those who have studied the subject carefully.

Through the courtesy of Rev. George Johnson, secretary of the Department of Education of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, which has its headquarters in Washington, D.C., we are enabled to supply evidence concerning enrolments in recent years in Catholic educational institutions. The evidence is presented in a table, which includes figures on enrolments in the several types of institutions at two-year intervals beginning with 1931-32. The table is accompanied by a "discussion," the following portion of which deals with enrolment in elementary and high schools.

In 1933-34 the total of elementary-school pupils was 2,159,652, a loss of 2.8 per cent in four years. This loss, which also occurred in public schools, is due to a number of factors, such as the decline of the birth-rate, restriction of immigration, and a let-up in school-building operations on account of the depression.

The high-school attendance, on the other hand, has continued to increase, owing greatly to the impetus of large elementary-school enrolments in former years. Then again, the average parent has come to realize that a high-school education is necessary in order to meet present-day standards. The sons of

immigrants of a half-century ago are striving to give their children at least a middle-class education. Strongly Catholic, as the majority of these descendants are, they choose to obtain this education under Catholic auspices.

Facilities for Catholic secondary education have continued to expand to provide for the increasing enrolments of the past two decades. In 1915 the National Catholic Educational Association conducted a survey of Catholic secondary schools which showed that there was an enrolment of 74,538 pupils. By 1934 the enrolment increased to 271,786, or 265 per cent in less than twenty years. The increase during the last four years has been 29,917 pupils, or a little over 12 per cent.

#### ENROLMENTS IN CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN 1932, 1934, AND 1936

Type of Institution	1931-32	1933-34	1935-36 Estimate
Elementary schools.....	2,193,160	2,159,652	2,180,000†
High schools.....	269,309	271,786	286,000
Universities and colleges*.....	113,658	113,230	115,000
Normal schools and teachers' colleges*.....	9,614	9,304	9,000
Preparatory seminaries.....	11,562	10,122	11,000
Major seminaries.....	7,721	7,800	8,000
Total.....	2,605,024	2,571,894	2,609,000

\* Including students at summer sessions.

† Reasons for expected increase of approximately 20,000 pupils are that the let-up in school-building operations has been overcome somewhat by new buildings and improvements and that children are being kept in the higher grades of the elementary school.

It is significant in relation to economic recovery that these two reports from what are distinct groups of schools show similar recent gains.

#### ADMIRABLE MATERIALS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Readers will recall the heat of the controversy some months ago over the exclusion from use in the camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps of certain pamphlets on social and economic problems. The materials had been especially prepared for instruction of the enrollees in the camps under a grant from the General Education Board to the American Council on Education. Exclusion resulted in abandonment of the plan after publication of the first pamphlet, *You and Machines*. The *School Review* at the time complained

against the interference with academic freedom that was manifested in the act of exclusion and commended the type of material and manner of presentation that was exemplified in the first pamphlet.

The complete series of pamphlets has recently been made available by the University of Chicago Press under the general title *American Primers*, the whole project in the meantime having been transferred from the American Council on Education. The series, in addition to *You and Machines*, consists of *Youth in the Depression*, *Strikes, Friends or Enemies? Money, Crime, Jobs or the Dole? Business and Government*, and *The Farm Business*. The pamphlets run to about fifty to sixty pages each, and they have been prepared by authorities in the fields represented. The editor of the series is Percy W. Bidwell, of the University of Buffalo.

In announcing the series, the publishers state that the pamphlets are "designed to meet the needs of school classes, adult-education courses, and workers' groups for readable materials in the social sciences. The publication of the series represents an attempt to present, in a spirit of scientific inquiry but in non-technical language, a discussion of current issues in economics, politics, and sociology." All the pamphlets are illustrated with inimitable drawings by Fred G. Cooper, which aid the reader in comprehending the issues discussed. The pamphlets will enjoy widespread use. They are published at twenty-five cents for each number.

#### OUTLINES FOR INSTRUCTION IN THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

The December *School Review*, under the heading "Indoctrination by Default and Indirection," commented unfavorably on portions of a bulletin on the general instructional problem of the Civilian Conservation Corps prepared by the Vocational Division and published for the United States Office of Education. More recently a series of more specialized bulletins have been published under the title *Outlines of Instruction for Educational Advisers and Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps*, which should be exceedingly useful

for the purpose intended. *Outlines of Instruction* have been prepared covering the following fifteen occupations and subjects.

Agriculture	House wiring
Automobile repairing	Elementary masonry
Automotive electricity	and bricklaying
Carpentry	Mechanical drawing
Concrete construction	Photography
Cooking	Radio servicing
Conservation of natural	Soil conservation
resources	Plane surveying
Forestry	

All the bulletins will be found helpful to teachers in related fields in secondary schools, but perhaps the one on "Conservation of Natural Resources" will, because of its relation to the social studies, be more widely used. The bulletins are for sale at the uniform price of ten cents by the Superintendent of Documents in Washington, D.C.

#### CONCERNING THE ELEVATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The October *School Review*, in commenting on a bulletin of the United States Office of Education on *Federal Co-operation in Agricultural Extension Work, Vocational Education, and Vocational Rehabilitation*, mentioned that, in discussing the problems in the field, no reference was made to one problem looming large just now when young persons completing programs of vocational training are unable to secure employment at the young ages at which they presumably are ready for it. This problem, it was pointed out, centers in the question of the duration of the program of general education that should precede or accompany vocational training and the school level at which the vocational training should be pitched. It now appears that much of vocational education may desirably be elevated to the junior-college level.

The comment elicited a courteous letter of explanation from the author of the bulletin, Lloyd E. Bauch, at present executive secretary of the Survey of the Dental Curriculum of the American Association of Dental Schools, from which we quote.

I was conscious of the problem of elevating much of vocational education to the junior-college level. However, the Smith-Hughes Act contains the following



clause: "that such education shall be of less than college grade. . . ." This requirement would appear to rule out using the Smith-Hughes funds for vocational education at the junior-college level unless the term "college grade" can be given a new interpretation. My bulletin is a report of the history and present status of the movement rather than a criticism. It was intentionally confined to a statement of fact.

Early modification of the Smith-Hughes Act or its interpretation to permit adjustment of the program of vocational education to emerging needs seems imperative.

#### DIFFERENTIATION IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Consideration of the need and the means of providing for individual differences continues to spread over the diverse areas of the curriculum. A field in which less has been done, perhaps, than in the older subject areas is physical education, and it is reassuring to find in a recent number of the *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin* a short yet meaty statement on the problem, entitled "A Differentiated Physical-Education Curriculum in High Schools," which we quote in full. The brief article, by Professor Jackson R. Sharman, describes certain provisions that have been put to use and recommends procedures for differentiation in small high schools.

Equal chances for all children is one of the accepted ideals of education in a democracy. In order that this ideal may achieve some degree of realization, it is essential that it influence teachers and administrators in their choice of instructional procedures and subject matter, in physical education as well as other school subjects. If pupils are grouped indiscriminately for physical education regardless of their ability, physical condition, and achievement, it increases the difficulty of providing a program of hygienic and beneficial activities. In this connection educators must realize that *equality* of educational opportunity does not mean the *same* opportunity. It *does* mean that every child should have an adequate opportunity to develop his abilities and talents.

#### CURRENT PRACTICES

Most educators give lip service to the ideal of providing a curriculum to meet the individual needs of pupils. In actual practice, however, very little is done about it except in a few of the better and more progressive schools. In regard to providing a differentiated physical-education curriculum to fit the needs and abilities of individual pupils, apparently even less effort is made than in the case of the more traditional academic subjects. In New York the State Department of Education has made a vigorous effort to stimulate teachers to attempt a form of individualized instruction based on the use of the Rogers test. It

seems that this effort—the only large-scale attempt that has been made to adapt a physical-education program to the individual needs of the pupils—has met with a reasonable degree of success. There have been several notable attempts at similar adjustment in some of the high schools of Detroit and in other cities, but the instances are not by any means numerous enough to be considered common practice. In scheduling high-school pupils for physical education it is usual to assign the work to some vacant period that is left after all the other subjects have been provided for. Where such procedures are followed, pupils of all different sizes, grades, and degrees of ability are in the same class—a condition that makes it tremendously difficult to adapt the content and methods to the interests and needs of the individual pupils.

The exemption from physical education of all pupils who are not able to participate in and profit from the regular physical-education class activities is not recommended. In most high schools provision should be made for subnormal and atypical as well as for superior children. In many high schools, competitive athletics meets some needs of the superior group, but special provision must be made for the handicapped group.

#### APPRAISAL AND ADJUSTMENT CLASSES

The plan used in some of the Detroit high schools seems to offer a practical and workable method for providing a type of instruction in physical education which is suited to the needs of individual pupils.

Under this plan when pupils first come to the high school from the lower grades, they are assigned to a physical-education class in a routine manner. No effort is made during the rush of registration to determine the needs of each individual pupil. These classes are called "appraisal classes," and the pupils remain in them for one semester. During this semester every pupil is given a medical examination and a battery of physical-ability and achievement tests. The results of these tests are used to determine the status and needs of each pupil.

About one month before the end of the first semester the teacher of physical education sends to the principal the data which will enable him to plan the schedule of each child in terms of his needs. These data include (1) the list of pupils who should be placed in restricted classes for rest or special individual exercises, (2) the list of pupils who are deficient in the skills of sports, swimming, and dancing, (3) the list of pupils who are normal in health and achievement and therefore eligible to elect any classes in physical activity, and (4) the time schedule of the classes designed to meet the needs of the pupils. The principal then, in light of these facts, arranges a schedule for the following semester so that each pupil will be placed in an "adjustment" class. The instruction in the adjustment classes is designed to help the pupils improve their skills and in other ways to meet their special needs.

After any pupil has been approved by the medical authorities and has removed all deficiencies in skills, he is permitted to elect the physical-education activities in which he chooses to participate.

#### THE CONTENT OF A CLASS PERIOD

In the organization of a class period it is important to give consideration to the development of skills and neuromuscular co-ordinations that can be taught to all the pupils on a mass basis. It is equally essential to include instruction in activities that can be played by the children during recesses, at noon periods, after school, and at other times when they are free to do as they please. These activities include things such as paddle tennis, deck tennis, shuffleboard, and hand tennis.

It has been observed that many pupils who are not particularly expert in highly organized team games and athletic events frequently excel in these recreational activities. It has also been found that in schools where such activities have been a part of the regular class instruction, even elementary-school pupils can organize and conduct tournaments and schedules in these interesting games with a minimum of advice and leadership from adults.

#### THE USE OF CORE ACTIVITIES

Another method that has been used successfully in adapting instruction in physical education to the individual needs of pupils is to teach a common "core" of activities to all the pupils in a class. These "core" activities should be such that all the pupils can do them satisfactorily and enjoy them. In addition, there should be a number of particular and specialized activities that the pupils of varying needs and abilities should practice as individuals or as small groups. This plan is recommended for use in schools where it does not seem practicable to arrange the academic schedule so that pupils of similar needs and abilities can be placed in the same class.

#### A DIFFERENTIATED CURRICULUM IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

The problem of providing a differentiated physical-education curriculum in small high schools is particularly difficult to solve. The following procedures either singly or in combination are believed to be of value in the solution of this problem: (1) *Set definite achievement standards in a limited number of activities.* These standards should be scientifically determined for accurately classified groups of pupils. The work of Neilson and Cozens (*Achievement Scales in Physical Education Activities for Boys and Girls in Elementary and Junior High Schools*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1934) should prove of great value in this connection. (2) *Arrange for expert guidance and instruction from the state department of education, the extension division of a college, or some other source of expert help.* This assistance might be given regularly by means of an extension course in physical education, correspondence, or radio. If done in any of these ways, it is essential that the instruction be carefully and efficiently organized. (3) *Provide short periods of intensive instruction by specialists who go from school to school.* The experiences of teachers in a large number of schools indicate that an extension course in physical education offered by a college is one of the most effective means of helping physical-education teachers in small high schools

plan and carry out a differentiated physical-education curriculum. A course of this kind provides the opportunity for the teachers from several schools to meet regularly. At the time of these meetings they plan the program for their schools, discuss their common problems, and review the subject matter that they expect to teach.

#### "THE EDUCATION DIGEST"

Educational periodicals, like almost all other social concerns requiring financial resources to succeed, have experienced difficulties during the depression. The distress was so great that most of these journals underwent changes of various kinds in endeavors to weather the storm, changes including curtailment in the number of issues published annually or in the number of pages of content and increases in rates of subscription. Some periodicals were even discontinued entirely. Almost certainly, the restrictions of cramped budgets have not yet disappeared, although the ravages of the depression in the family of journals is not now so noticeable as formerly. In view of the difficulties, it is the more surprising to learn of the launching in November of a new periodical, the *Education Digest*.

To be sure, the new journal is sufficiently distinctive in function to give it assurance of a vigorous life even during—or should we say, *because of*—the difficult times. The editorial aim of the *Education Digest*, says the first issue, "is to present to the busy educator condensations of noteworthy articles taken from the leading professional and lay publications." One assumes from its name and convenient format that it undertakes to be analogous to the *Reader's Digest*, which publishes abstracts of articles appearing in the popular magazines. The first number of the new education periodical, published in November, contains digests of about thirty articles from almost an equal number of journals. It cannot, within the limits of sixty-four printed pages, give the gist of all good articles published.

In at least one respect the analogy of the *Reader's Digest* may not be applicable to educational literature. The popular magazines for the most part contain descriptive, discussional, or speculative articles. It is seldom that they present tabular or other evidence which has been derived from investigation. On the other hand, much of the best of the content of educational journals is of the type reporting the results of elaborate inquiry. Many such articles are difficult if not impossible to digest, and it will hardly suffice to resort

to the sections of the articles containing conclusions only. It would be even more unrepresentative and unfortunate to exclude such articles from an abstracting journal.

The new journal has already made a favorable impression, and rumor has it that its reception to date assures the financial success of the venture. The managing editor is Lawrence W. Prakken. The subscription price is two dollars a year of ten issues. The office of publication is the *Education Digest*, Post-Office Box 100, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

#### WHO'S WHO IN THIS ISSUE

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## SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND— REORGANIZATION AND IMPLICATIONS

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It is virtually impossible for a person who studies the educational program of a foreign country to refrain from evaluating it in the light of the practices in his own land. Obviously, no valid comparison between two national systems of education can be drawn without taking into consideration the differences in cultural backgrounds, economic conditions, and the forms of local and national government. In a comparison of English and American education, however, such common factors as language, democratic government, and early historical traditions are likely to cause the observer to minimize, if not actually to forget, differences in social conditions which seriously affect educational policy. There is, accordingly, particular need for caution in drawing conclusions regarding the respective merits of English and American programs of education or in assuming that the one could profit materially by taking over, or even adopting in modified form, essential elements of the other.

The data for the present study were secured in England during the year 1934, chiefly from official school reports and bulletins and from interviews with administrative officers. Additional information was obtained from publications of educational, labor, and social organizations and, in many cases, from conversations with their officers. The knowledge of educational and social conditions acquired by the writer during two years previously spent in England proved helpful in understanding the purposes and in evaluating the effectiveness of English school policies.

To present a comprehensive account of the recent reorganization of English secondary education would greatly exceed the limitations of the space here available. Instead, the discussion will concern mainly those aspects of the movement which appear to parallel

problems of secondary education in this country or to have a potential bearing on such problems. A clear presentation of the current reorganization of English secondary schools requires a brief survey of the traditional school system from which the secondary schools have developed.

#### TRADITIONAL SCHOOL STRUCTURE

Elementary education in England has long been treated as falling into three stages: the infant stage, dealing with children from the age of five to about seven plus; the junior stage, from approximately seven plus to eleven plus; and the senior stage continuing to fourteen, the upper compulsory age limit. At times there have been separate schools for each stage, but usually the children of the junior and the senior stages have been housed together.

Although there is a great variety of secondary schools in England, ranging from the well-known "public" (really private) schools with upwards of five hundred boarders to small private day schools having fewer than fifty pupils, the predominant type has been the municipal secondary school, established and controlled by the county council. The authorization of this unit in 1902 marked the beginning of public secondary education in England. Pupils are admitted to this school at about the age of twelve, through the medium of a selective examination. This school is a tuition school, the fees averaging from ten to twelve pounds yearly. However, every school must offer a minimum number of entrance scholarships to pupils from public elementary schools, and it is estimated that somewhat more than half the pupils are excused from paying tuition either in whole or in part. The curriculum is of a general rather than a vocational character.

Most of the pupils leave the council secondary school at the age of sixteen plus, after taking a university-controlled examination known as the "school-certificate examination." Certificates thus gained technically qualify pupils to enter universities and are held in high regard by employers in industry. A comparatively small number of pupils remain in school, chiefly to prepare for scholarships and honors courses in universities. The work usually terminates with the "higher-certificate examination," given when the pupils have reached about eighteen years of age. Students entering the university at this stage normally obtain degrees in three years.



Educational leaders in England have long been sentient of the weaknesses inherent in the school units described. Poor articulation between elementary and secondary schools and the selective effects of entrance examinations and tuition fees in the secondary schools have eliminated the possibility of a democratic educational ladder. The proportion of children in school drops rapidly after the age of fourteen; in the school year 1922-23, 88 per cent of the children between the ages of thirteen and fourteen were in school, but only 31 per cent of the children between fourteen and fifteen years of age and 9.9 per cent between fifteen and sixteen years old attended school. Moreover, the school-certificate and the higher examinations virtually prohibit expansion of the secondary curriculum to meet current social needs.

The stage of elementary education beyond the age of eleven plus, designated as "post-primary education," was generally criticized because of its repetition of earlier work and because of its unsuitability to the varying needs of adolescent boys and girls. Experiments with new schools and classes at this level resulted in the establishment in 1911 of the central school, a four-year unit with a somewhat broader curriculum and less selective pupil body than the council secondary school. Junior technical schools for children of thirteen or fourteen years of age were authorized in 1913. In 1918 the Fisher Act authorized "practical" and "advanced" post-primary instruction, but, except for varying types of units developed in some educationally progressive localities, little was accomplished. Crystallization of opinion among educators and school authorities with respect to the principles of reorganization to be followed was apparently needed. The initial step in supplying this element was taken when the Board of Education in 1924 referred the problem of adolescent education to its Consultative Committee.

#### ARRIVING AT A NATIONAL POLICY

Seldom, if ever, has an educational document exercised such a unifying influence on the professional and lay opinion of a country as that of the report—frequently referred to as the Hadow Plan—submitted by the Consultative Committee in 1926. It is a question, in the opinion of the writer, which aspect of the report exerted the greater unifying effect: the conclusions themselves or the manner of

obtaining them. In any event, the organization and the procedure of the Consultative Committee merit study as means of winning support for important school policies.

The committee is a statutory body consisting of twenty-one members appointed by the president of the Board of Education for a term of six years. In contrast with our national deliberative committees in education, membership is based not so much on outstanding expertness in special fields as on ability to present the views of representative types of schools and organizations interested in education. For example, in the United States bodies like the Commission on Length of Elementary Education and the National Advisory Committee on Education are chiefly made up of our Capens, Evendens, Judds, or Suzzallo's, but the roster of the Consultative Committee does not show the Burts, Davies', Nunns, or Spearmans of the English educational world. To all appearances, scientific authority is sacrificed to expediency in the makeup of the Consultative Committee.

The committee does not, however, neglect scientific information once its work is under way. Outstanding educators are summoned as "witnesses," and not only their knowledge but often their services are fully utilized. The committee, sitting as a whole through forty-six days, examined a total of ninety-five witnesses, and subcommittees spent upwards of twenty days in like examination of special aspects of the problem. The result was a report based on modern educational principles and bearing the earmarks of a democratic staff enterprise. Indifference and hostility on the part of the teaching forces, handicaps often connected with policies formulated solely by committees of specialists, were avoided. Sharing in the responsibility for the decisions, the educational staff was committed from the outset to give the report an appreciable measure of support. The major factor in obtaining public support for the report, in the opinion of the writer, was the thoroughness displayed by the committee in requiring *all* groups, with vested or other interests, to submit testimony. Organizations testifying included more than three hundred leading school, industrial, professional, social, labor, and governmental interests. Individuals testifying before the committee included bishop, baronet, barrister, director of prisons, foreign-office adviser,

and members of parliament. Requiring expressions from all public-spirited bodies undoubtedly fortifies public and legislative opinion against undue influence of pressure groups.

The chief recommendations of the Hadow report may be summarized as follows:

1. Primary education should be considered as ending at about the age of eleven plus, to be followed by secondary education.
2. Secondary education should end at sixteen plus for some pupils, at eighteen plus for others, but at fourteen plus or fifteen plus for the majority. It should be regarded as a "single whole" containing a variety of types of education, all with the common aim of providing for the needs of adolescents.
3. The administrative organization for secondary education should consist of the following units:
  - a) Schools of the existing council type, having curriculums largely literary or scientific and carrying pupils at least to the age of sixteen plus, henceforth to be known as "grammar schools."
  - b) Schools of the existing selective-central type, having a four-year course from the age of eleven plus to fifteen plus, with a practical trend in the last two years, to be known as "modern schools."
  - c) Schools of a non-selective type, having a curriculum similar to that of the selective school (but with differentiation for individuals), for pupils from the age of eleven plus to fourteen plus who cannot qualify for the selective schools or who live where no selective school exists. These are also to be known as "modern schools."
  - d) Departments or classes within elementary schools providing advanced instruction for children from the age of eleven plus to fourteen plus who cannot attend any of the other units, to be known as "senior classes."
4. Provision should be made for easy transfer at the age of twelve or thirteen years, from "modern schools" or "senior classes" to grammar (present secondary) schools, for pupils who show ability to profit by literary or scientific training beyond the age of fifteen.
5. The first two years of the curriculum in modern schools and senior classes should be much the same as that in grammar schools but simpler and more limited in scope. Beginning with the third year, the curriculum should have a practical, though not vocational, trend in conformance with local economic and industrial conditions.

#### CONTRASTS WITH AMERICAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL POLICY

The modern schools and the senior classes described in the foregoing condensed outline may appear to possess many resemblances to our junior high schools. However, apart from the fact that both

systems are designed to meet the needs of adolescents, the differences between the two are perhaps more striking than the similarities. The modern schools, even when selective, and the senior classes are distinctly terminal courses; they prepare children for industrial occupations and mean the end of regular schooling. They are not units in an educational ladder; passage to universities is still limited to pupils of the traditional council school. It is difficult, in this connection, for Americans to understand why the employment in industry of English boys and girls of fourteen to sixteen years is still widely condoned, especially since adult unemployment is extremely prevalent and the principle that child labor is unprofitable is well established.

Another fundamental difference lies in the preservation of class distinctions through the provision of separate schools for different types of education. It would be difficult to visualize American toleration of a system of secondary education in which a selective group of pupils attended high schools leading to universities, a slightly less selected group attended high schools not accredited by universities, and the less favored masses of pupils attended junior high schools which led directly into industrial occupations. It is noteworthy that the proposal of having grammar-school, modern-school, and senior-class courses in the same school formed no part of the Hadow scheme, nor is it seriously considered in most other official writings on reorganization. This attitude can scarcely be due to the fear of large schools, for the handicaps of extremely small units are readily conceded by English school officials. However, two influential organizations, the Labor Party and the National Union of Teachers, have raised the question of differentiated schools. The former undoubtedly regards the multiple-curriculum school as a means of eliminating class distinctions; and, while the latter may regard it in the same light, they advance it as a potentially more effective type of organization.

In contrast with junior high school policy, the Hadow scheme places little emphasis on exploratory courses in the first two years or on guidance or extra-curriculum activities at any stage. Separate departments for the sexes are recommended, with a headmistress for the girls and a headmaster for the boys. Apparently, tradition

still outweighs consideration for the socializing influence of wholesome contacts with the opposite sex at adolescence.

#### PUTTING THE HADOW PLAN INTO PRACTICE

Initial experiences in reorganizing schools on the Hadow basis have in many respects resembled those encountered in this country when junior high schools were introduced. Inability to provide new buildings for the "senior schools"—as the modern schools and senior classes have come to be called—has often involved the shifting of considerable numbers of pupils of both junior and senior divisions to other buildings, a procedure made the more complicated by separate provisions, where possible, for the sexes. The objections of parents to sending their children increased distances and the reluctance of the heads of elementary schools to part with their top grades were soon dissipated in a realization of the improved conditions resulting from reorganization. The poverty of many voluntary schools and the geographical problems connected with rural areas have thus far proved, aside from the economic depression, the greatest obstacles to reorganization.

Certain circumstances, on the other hand, have facilitated the progress of reorganization. An example is the fact that senior schools are still legally classified as a division of elementary education. This situation was effectively utilized in keeping costs of buildings, equipment, and salaries at a reasonable level, justifiable public criticism being thus avoided. It also eliminated the possibility of opposition from teachers in un-reorganized schools to the payment of secondary salaries to teachers in the new schools—opposition not always avoided in the case of our junior high schools. An official of a leading teachers' organization informed the writer that the teachers in the senior schools appreciate the apparent inconsistency of their present status but feel that the time is not yet opportune to demand secondary-school salaries. This willingness of English school people to conciliate conflicting interests and to capitalize practical advantages has implications for us in future reorganizations of secondary schools.

In London the number of council elementary schools placed on a reorganized basis has grown from 18 in 1926, when the Hadow

report was issued, to 482, or 88.3 per cent of the total, in 1934. Contrasted with the fact that in 1933 less than 40 per cent of the pupils of Grades VII and VIII in New York City were in junior high schools,<sup>1</sup> these figures indicate respectable progress. In addition, reorganization in the council schools has influenced the non-provided, or voluntary, schools in London to the extent that 22.3 per cent of these schools now operate on the reorganized basis. In 1926 the proportion of pupils in senior departments, mostly selective central schools, in England and Wales was 8.5 per cent; in December, 1933, approximately 50 per cent of the children over eleven years of age were in reorganized schools.

While sufficient time has not elapsed to reveal all the merits and defects of the Hadow Plan, the general weight of opinion, as revealed in surveys, testimony of school administrators, and pronouncements of teachers' organizations, is that, on the whole, it has proved effective in practice. The reorganization, it is felt, has resulted in improved environment for adolescent children; better classification in both junior and senior departments; more vitalized curriculums, particularly in the industrial arts; and greater ease of administration. The new organization and courses have stimulated increased numbers of parents to keep their children in school beyond the compulsory age.

#### PROBLEMS OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

The American student of English secondary education experiences a considerable loss of optimism when he turns from the schools reorganized on the Hadow basis to the "grammar" school, previously known as the council secondary school. He ceases, at this point, to deal with such conceptions as free universal schooling, differentiated curriculums, and courses suited to local needs and encounters entrance examinations, fees, free places, specialization, and school-certificate and higher examinations. There are no significant measures of reorganization to study, for none are being undertaken. However, English educators have sensed the main problems confronting the grammar school and are generally agreed on the initial steps to be taken in solving some of them.

<sup>1</sup> *Thirty-fifth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools for the Year Ending June 30, 1933*, p. 72. New York: Board of Education of the City of New York.

The impression of an English secondary school commonly held in this country has been that of a unit equivalent to our four-year high school and junior college combined. Possibly this conception resulted from descriptions of the English "public" schools, such as Eton and Harrow. It is doubtful, however, whether any type of English secondary school, grammar or public, has the scope of such integrated units as those established in Pasadena, California, or Joliet, Illinois. The grammar schools were patterned after the public schools and the ancient grammar schools, but they have not resulted in as long a course. The pupils attending the present grammar schools are not so financially favored as the pupils of the public schools and cannot remain in school as long. The leaving age of most pupils, sixteen years plus, and the "thinness" and formality of the curriculum appear to give some grounds for Lord Percy's characterization of grammar-school training as "what, in any other country, would be called not a secondary-, but a middle-school education."<sup>1</sup> Only about a fourth of the grammar schools offer work beyond the age of sixteen plus.

The chief problem in the education of pupils younger than sixteen, as previously mentioned, is to broaden and enrich the curriculum, but leaders of secondary education are generally agreed that broadening cannot take place until the grip of the school-certificate examination is broken. Pupils select subjects, and teachers direct study, with this examination in view to the extent that the schools have been characterized by a prominent educator as factories for the production of school certificates. A solution commonly offered is the suggestion that the examination be no longer used for matriculation in higher institutions and that a school certificate based on classwork and the school's examinations be issued at the age of sixteen plus. It is not recommended, however, that such a certificate admit to universities; the theory of an educational élite is still deeply ingrained in English educational philosophy.

The problem of specialization becomes more acute in the years between sixteen and eighteen, owing chiefly to the higher examination. Data on the examinations show an unmistakable connection

<sup>1</sup> Lord Eustace Percy, *Higher Education*, p. 7. London: National Union of Teachers, 1933.



between the subjects written and those required for honors degrees and scholarships in the universities. Passing the higher examination usually exempts the student from approximately one year of work and the intermediate examination in the university. What happens is that the candidate attempts to accomplish in the grammar school part of the degree work in his field of specialization at the university.

It is thus apparent that the period of secondary schooling between the ages of sixteen plus and eighteen plus presents a fallow field for reorganization. At present it is difficult to regard this stage as an integral part of the grammar school or as an independent administrative unit comparable, say, to our junior college. Many English educators are coming to the conclusion that general education is needed at this period, not only for those who will leave school at eighteen, but also as a necessary background for specialization for those who go to the universities. The most essential step in realizing this goal, it is generally believed, is to divorce the higher examination from all connection with university scholarships and degree requirements. Many would replace the higher examination with an examination covering broad general education.

While recognizing that a program of general education should replace much of the specialization now prevalent beyond the age of sixteen, educators are not agreed on how long this general education should last. The weight of opinion appears to favor general education until about the age of eighteen; few advocate lengthening the present span of schooling. Devoting the entire period of the secondary school to general education would assist in eliminating present overlapping of grammar-school and university training.

#### LOOKING FORWARD

Among English educators the conviction grows that secondary schooling to the age of eighteen plus will eventually be regarded as a necessity for all boys and girls. It is realized that the employment of young people in industrial occupations is gradually decreasing and that such current measures as unemployment insurance and juvenile-instruction centers cannot adequately preserve the morale of children who are neither employed nor in school. Moreover, the need, resulting from rapid social change, for training for civic re-

sponsibilities and for wholesome leisure-time pursuits is becoming more widely recognized. A program providing general education to the age of eighteen plus, with opportunity to transfer into technical or other vocational training at about the age of sixteen plus, is advocated by a leading educator and may be regarded as illustrative of the thought of many secondary-school leaders. A development of this character would enable the secondary school not alone to prepare intellectually gifted students for the university but also to prepare all the youth of the country for enriched participation in life.

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## TRAITS RELATED TO GOOD AND POOR TEACHING

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The identification and the measurement of the unitary traits constituting the basic factors in success in teaching should promote the construction of much more adequate instruments for use in the selection or guidance of teachers than any now existing. Multiple-factor analysis is recommended as the technique to be used. Preliminary research is needed, however, if application of the complex factor-analysis technique is to prove effective. The efficiency of any mathematical or statistical procedure is conditioned by the quality of the data used. At present, application of the factor-analysis technique to the problem of unitary traits, or factors, in teaching success is hazardous, since numerous irrelevant traits are likely to be investigated, with consequent inordinate increase in the amount of calculation required. The present study is an effort to identify traits worthy of further investigation. An attempt is made to indicate something of the relative importance of these traits and of the effectiveness of one means of collecting data concerning them.

The following persons prepared lists of traits which they considered significant factors in teaching success: Frank E. Baker, president of State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; William S. Gray, professor of education at the University of Chicago; Uel W. Lamkin, president of the Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri; Butler Laughlin, president of the Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Illinois; W. P. Morgan, president of the Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois; and Ralph Noyer, dean of the Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The following investigation was also helpful in drawing up a list of traits: F. W. Hart (compiler), *Teachers and Teaching*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1934. Hart

These lists were carefully analyzed, and a number of teachers in the Chicago public schools were asked to estimate the relative importance of traits included in a preliminary list. The final list was used to collect data from 224 pupils in the high schools of the following teachers' colleges: Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb, Illinois; Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois; Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana; Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa; Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan; and State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.<sup>1</sup> The list, submitted in mimeographed form to the high-school pupils, contained one hundred "positive" traits and their corresponding opposites arranged in random order; for example, the adjective "appreciative" was widely separated in the list from its opposite, "unappreciative."

The pupils were asked to think of the best teacher they had ever had from the point of view of effective teaching and to underline the traits of that teacher. They were asked to think of the poorest teacher they had ever had and to underline the traits of that teacher. They were also asked to state the sex and the approximate age of each of these teachers and the subject taught. The data thus collected were tabulated in the form required for calculation of tetrachoric coefficients of correlation.<sup>2</sup> The use of this measure of relationship was thought appropriate since the assumption seemed reasonable that "goodness" and "poorness" of teaching represented a continuous variable normally distributed and that the same was true of such traits as "appreciative" versus "unappreciative" and "imaginative" versus "unimaginative."<sup>3</sup> Had the traits been measured as

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ascribes the authorship to the ten thousand high-school Seniors constituting his sources of data respecting the traits of the "best liked teacher," the "teacher liked least of all," and the "teacher who taught most effectively."

<sup>1</sup> Faculty members of the teachers' colleges were asked to make an evaluation similar to that made by the Chicago teachers. The returns were insufficient in number to warrant detailed analysis.

<sup>2</sup> The difficult tasks of tabulating and organizing the data were accomplished by Mrs. Beatrice Rittenberg, a graduate student at the University of Chicago.

<sup>3</sup> The following monograph was used in the calculation of these coefficients: Leone Chesire, Milton Saffir, and L. L. Thurstone, *Computing Diagrams for the Tetrachoric Correlation Coefficient*. Chicago: University of Chicago Bookstore, 1933.

intelligence is ordinarily measured, the Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation would have been the appropriate index to use. A tetrachoric coefficient of correlation is equivalent to the Pearson product-moment coefficient of the normal correlation surface that best fits the data used in the calculation of the tetrachoric coefficient. If the tetrachoric coefficient between the quality of teaching and knowledge of subject matter is high, then knowledge of subject matter is a significant factor in successful teaching.

Of course, the ratings made are probably substantially limited by the "halo" effect, and consequently the coefficients calculated are higher than the true coefficients. However, this limitation probably does not seriously reduce the value of these data for purposes of comparison. The reader should note the extent to which a number of pairs of coefficients relating to traits whose designations are practically synonymous are equal, or approximately so. In Table I the traits have been ranked in order of magnitude of the coefficients obtained, and only the positive aspect of each trait has been listed.

"Good judgment," "Common sense," "Intelligent," "Adaptable," and possibly others of the traits listed may be indicative of some fundamental unitary trait which would be more adequately identified by means of factor analysis. Similar statements might be made for certain other groups of traits included in the list. It should be mentioned that any inferences made on the basis of judgment should be regarded only as hypotheses. The findings of factor analysis may be quite different.

The trait designations given in Table I are worthy of careful study. Although "Good judgment" is not a particularly meaningful term, one may be justified in assuming that pupils have in mind a judicious selection of exercises assigned for study or of topics discussed in class. The meaning given to this term by the students may also include aspects of fairness, common sense, system, organization, poise, self-control, and discipline. It is interesting to note that "Clear in explanation" and "Knows subject" are high in the list. Since "Clear in explanation" ranks higher than "Knows subject," there may be justification for the inference that the important thing is the ability to get subject matter "across" to the students.

In the opinion of the writers, clearness in explanation, tolerance of others' opinions, sincerity, impartiality, interest in pupils, and other traits ranking high in the list represent the essence of good teaching.<sup>1</sup> It is satisfying, indeed, to find that high-school pupils value these

TABLE I

TRAITS CORRELATING SIGNIFICANTLY AND POSITIVELY WITH QUALITY OF  
TEACHING ACCORDING TO TRAITS NAMED BY 224 HIGH-SCHOOL  
PUPILS AS CHARACTERISTIC OF GOOD TEACHERS

Trait	Tetrachoric Coefficient of Correlation	Trait	Tetrachoric Coefficient of Correlation
1. Good judgment.....	0.93	23. Friendly.....	0.72
2. Clear in explanation.....	.88	24. Cheerful.....	.72
3. Respecting others' opin- ions.....	.86	25. Industrious.....	.72
4. Sincere.....	.83	26. Kind.....	.68
5. Impartial.....	.83	27. Widely informed.....	.67
6. Fair.....	.82	28. Interested in teaching..	.67
7. Appreciative.....	.80	29. Cultured.....	.67
8. Interested in pupils.....	.80	30. Loyal to school.....	.65
9. Broad-minded.....	.80	31. Sociable.....	.65
10. Knows subject.....	.79	32. Has poise.....	.64
11. Common sense.....	.79	33. Polite.....	.63
12. Prompt.....	.79	34. Many interests.....	.62
13. Intelligent.....	.78	35. Courteous.....	.62
14. Sportsmanlike.....	.78	36. Has self-control.....	.61
15. Interested in pupil activi- ties.....	.78	37. Adaptable.....	.59
16. Good-natured.....	.77	38. Good voice.....	.57
17. Good enunciation.....	.77	39. Good pronunciation....	.57
18. Considerate.....	.77	40. Purposeful.....	.53
19. Systematic.....	.76	41. Healthy.....	.48
20. Good organizer.....	.74	42. Neat in appearance and in dress.....	.46
21. Sense of humor.....	.73	43. Believes in education....	.46
22. Ambitious.....	0.72	44. Refined.....	.40
		45. Good grammar.....	.37
		46. Strict.....	0.32

things in a teacher more than such traits as "Neat in appearance and in dress" and "Personally attractive." The pupils seem to rank highest those traits most directly related to the direction and the stimulation of learning. "Strict" is lowest on the list of the traits for which coefficients were computed. While this trait is not regarded as particularly important, the "good" teacher, in the minds

<sup>1</sup> The findings of Hart are in considerable agreement; compare F. W. Hart, *op. cit.*, pp. 131-32, 250-51, and 278-79.

of the pupils, is more often than not the teacher who maintains discipline.

In the following list are given the traits for which tetrachoric coefficients of correlation were not computed.

TRAITS WHICH DID NOT CORRELATE SIGNIFICANTLY WITH QUALITY OF  
TEACHING ACCORDING TO TRAITS NAMED BY 224 HIGH-SCHOOL  
PUPILS AS CHARACTERISTIC OF GOOD TEACHERS

- |                      |                       |                           |
|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Accurate          | 19. Has initiative    | 37. Has vitality          |
| 2. Thoughtful        | 20. Reliable          | 38. Calm                  |
| 3. Inspiring         | 21. Studious          | 39. Unprejudiced          |
| 4. Persistent        | 22. Critical          | 40. Consistent            |
| 5. Generous          | 23. Co-operative      | 41. Welcomes criticism    |
| 6. Modest            | 24. Dignified         | 42. Enthusiastic          |
| 7. Practical         | 25. Loyal to students | 43. Has convictions       |
| 8. Just              | 26. Earns respect     | 44. Uncomplaining         |
| 9. Patient           | 27. Altruistic        | 45. Businesslike          |
| 10. Imaginative      | 28. Good address      | 46. Open to suggestion    |
| 11. Energetic        | 29. Religious         | 47. High moral code       |
| 12. Athletic         | 30. Zealous           | 48. Tolerant              |
| 13. Careful          | 31. Optimistic        | 49. Self-critical         |
| 14. Dependable       | 32. Alert             | 50. Independent           |
| 15. Self-sacrificing | 33. Conscientious     | 51. Aggressive            |
| 16. A leader         | 34. Serene            | 52. Personally attractive |
| 17. Scholarly        | 35. Discriminative    | 53. Not sarcastic         |
| 18. Unassuming       | 36. Vigorous          | 54. Sympathetic           |

It was evident from the tabulated data that the coefficients for these traits would not be greater than  $+.30$ ; in other words, that no significant relation was present. A number of terms included in this list are practically synonymous with those given in Table I; for example, "Just" is synonymous with "Impartial" or "Fair," and "Tolerant" with "Respecting others' opinions." It may be that the terms were less meaningful to the pupils and that, if the terms had been adequately defined in a rating scale, rankings comparable to those obtained by their more successful synonyms would have been secured. Some of the other terms may relate to traits which are important to good teaching but the functions of which were not directly evident to the pupils, for example, "Imaginative," "Scholarly," "Studious," and "Altruistic." Finally, it is probably justifiable to regard "Athletic," "A leader," "Unassuming," "Dignified," "Re-



ligious," and "Personally attractive" as designations of traits not significantly related to teaching.

The findings with respect to sex and age of the teachers are interesting. Forty-four per cent of the men rated were classified as good teachers and 56 per cent as poor teachers. Of the women rated, 56.5 per cent were classified as good teachers and 43.5 per cent as poor teachers. Distributions of the estimated ages are given in Table II. The poor teachers are slightly more variable with respect to age, a fact possibly indicative of adverse effects of inexperience on the one hand and elderliness or old age on the other. The criticism may be made that pupils' estimates of age cannot be depended on. There

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS' ESTIMATES OF AGES OF TEACHERS  
RATED AS GOOD AND POOR TEACHERS

AGE IN YEARS	GOOD TEACHERS		POOR TEACHERS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
50 or above .....	5	4.3	7	6.5
40-49 .....	16	13.7	26	24.3
30-39 .....	68	58.1	47	43.9
20-29 .....	28	23.9	27	25.3
Total .....	117	100.0	107	100.0

probably is some truth in this statement, but there may be significance in the fact that the pupils more often classified as poor those teachers whose characteristics were often unfavorably associated with youth or old age.

The information given in this article should be useful to persons concerned in the training of teachers. The traits listed should be given consideration in formulating the objectives of teacher-training curriculums, in advising students, and in estimating the probable teaching success of students whose traits are reasonably well known to the adviser. The information should be suggestive to the school administrator in his thinking about matters pertaining to the selection and the supervision of teachers. Finally, the data should be helpful to the research worker planning a penetrating investigation of teacher traits.

## OCCUPATIONAL INTERESTS OF NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS

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*Earlier studies.*—During the past twenty years many studies of pupils' interests have been made. Although more than five million negroes are employed in the United States and more than two million negro pupils are enrolled in the public schools, few studies have been made of the occupational interests of negro pupils.

Mebane (7), in a study of thirty-eight negro schools in North Carolina, found that the most popular choices were professional, that the number of choices of trades and business occupations were proportionately small, and that the clerical group of occupations was the second choice of the girls. A study made by Parks (8) in the Louisville schools showed that 52 per cent of 742 high-school pupils made choices in the professional fields. The study showed that the choices were out of proportion to the opportunities in these fields.

*Purposes of present study.*—The purposes of the study reported in this article were (1) to determine the occupational choices of negro pupils in eight high schools in Indiana and four in Kentucky having similar educational, economical, and social traditions and (2) to determine the factors affecting the occupational choices.

*Method of securing data.*—Fifteen hundred questionnaires involving twenty-one items were sent to the twelve schools during the school year 1933-34. The pupils (all boys) were also requested to state age, grade, present economic and occupational status of fathers and brothers, educational intentions, and agencies influencing their occupational choices. The questionnaires were filled out under the supervision of principals, teachers, and counselors. The facts were collected from 1,248 returned questionnaires, 83.2 per cent of the 1,500 originally sent out.

*Educational plans of pupils.*—The educational plans of these 1,248 high-school pupils are shown in Table I.

By far the greater part of the pupils who answered the questionnaire stated definitely that they expected to graduate from high school, less than 3 per cent indicating that they did not expect to finish, while a similar percentage were undecided. The percentage of pupils who had definite high-school plans increased as the pupils progressed through high school except in the Sophomore year.

TABLE I  
DISTRIBUTION OF 1,248 NEGRO BOYS IN GRADES IX-XII  
ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL PLANS

	GRADE IX		GRADE X		GRADE XI		GRADE XII		TOTAL	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
High-school plans:										
Expect to finish....	346	91.8	233	67.9	255	93.8	247	96.5	1,081	86.6
Do not expect to finish.....	11	2.9	5	1.5	6	2.2	9	3.5	31	2.5
Undecided.....	20	5.3	0	0.0	11	4.0	0	0.0	31	2.5
Not reporting.....	0	0.0	105	30.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	105	8.4
Total.....	377	100.0	343	100.0	272	100.0	256	100.0	1,248	100.0
College plans:										
Expect to attend...	291	77.2	168	49.0	181	66.6	227	88.7	867	69.5
Do not expect to at- tend.....	57	15.1	43	12.5	50	18.4	29	11.3	179	14.3
Undecided.....	23	6.1	8	2.3	11	4.0	0	0.0	42	3.4
Not reporting.....	6	1.6	124	36.2	30	11.0	0	0.0	160	12.8
Total.....	377	100.0	343	100.0	272	100.0	256	100.0	1,248	100.0

The value of knowing the pupil's intention concerning attendance at a higher institution is similar to that frequently ascribed to the length of stay in high school. Table I shows that nearly seven-tenths of these pupils expected to attend college. Only about 14 per cent stated definitely that they did not expect to attend college.

*Occupational choices.*—Vocational interests were expressed by the boys who answered the questionnaire with the same definiteness that characterized their answers concerning educational aims. In the study 870 pupils expressed preference for some occupation. The Freshmen chose twenty-six different occupations, the Sopho-

mores twenty-three, and the Juniors and Seniors chose thirty occupations each. Each class made many choices in the professional fields, but the choices of many new occupations, such as research work in

TABLE II  
OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES OF 870 NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS AND  
NUMBER OF FATHERS EMPLOYED IN EACH OCCUPATION

OCCUPATION	BOYS CHOOSING OCCUPATION		FATHERS EMPLOYED IN OCCUPATION	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Teacher .....	207	23.8	24	3.7
Physician .....	178	20.5	16	2.5
Commercial artist .....	65	7.5	6	.9
Physical-education director .....	62	7.1	1	.2
Mechanic .....	46	5.3	94	14.4
Mail service .....	37	4.3	4	.6
Automobile mechanic .....	28	3.2	0	.0
Chiropodist .....	27	3.1	0	.0
Lawyer .....	27	3.1	1	.2
Aviator .....	27	3.1	2	.3
Athletic coach .....	17	2.0	0	.0
Musician .....	17	2.0	2	.3
Undertaker .....	16	1.8	5	.8
Minister .....	13	1.5	10	1.5
Engineer .....	12	1.4	8	1.2
Architect .....	9	1.0	0	.0
Social-service worker .....	7	.8	0	.0
Artist .....	7	.8	6	.9
Author .....	6	.7	2	.3
Fireman (public service) .....	6	.7	0	.0
Librarian .....	6	.7	0	.0
Farmer .....	5	.6	6	.9
Porter .....	5	.6	13	2.0
Laborer .....	4	.4	230	35.2
Dietitian .....	3	.3	0	.0
Research worker .....	3	.3	0	.0
Business .....	3	.3	9	1.3
Others .....	27	3.1	214	32.8
Total .....	870	100.0	653	100.0

chemistry and science, dietetics, and social service, show that new fields are being chosen by negro pupils.

The numerical distribution of the occupational choices made by the pupils in all the grades and the occupations of the fathers are shown in Table II. Teaching ranked first as a chosen occupation, with 207 choices and medicine second, with 178 choices. Medicine,

teaching, law, the ministry, engineering, architecture, art, science, and music claimed 473, or 72 per cent, of the group making choices in the professional fields. Teaching ranked first in all grades, losing a little in preference as the pupils reached higher grades, although fifty-one of the Seniors chose teaching. The composite classification of the occupations shown in Table III indicates that three-fourths of the pupils chose professional occupations.

TABLE III

FIELD OF OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE OF 870 NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS AND NUMBER OF FATHERS EMPLOYED IN EACH FIELD

OCCUPATIONAL FIELD	BOYS CHOOSING OCCUPATION		FATHERS EMPLOYED IN OCCUPATION	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Professional.....	654	75.2	76	11.6
Skilled work.....	128	14.7	111	17.0
Public service.....	47	5.4	8	1.3
Trade.....	26	3.0	28	4.3
Domestic and personal service.....	10	1.1	108	16.5
Unskilled labor.....	5	0.6	322	49.3
Total.....	870	100.0	653	100.0

*Occupations of the fathers.*—When the occupational choices of the pupils are compared with the occupations of the fathers (Tables II and III), it is apparent that the pupils are not strongly attracted by the occupations in which their fathers are engaged. Nevertheless, the occupation of the father seemed to influence the intended occupations of these boys to a greater degree than the occupation of any other member of the family. Houston (4) in a study of Freshmen in the University of Colorado found that parental influence ranked relatively low in the occupational choices of the students. Gould and Davis (3) in a study of several schools in Colorado revealed that the father's education definitely influenced pupils in their choice of high-school subjects.

*Reasons for choices.*—The pupils who answered the questionnaire were also asked to state their reasons for their choices of occupations. The reasons for making a particular choice are an important

consideration in evaluating the vocational plans of high-school pupils. The 956 reasons for liking the occupations chosen by the 870 pupils are shown in Table IV. Interest in the chosen vocation ranked first, aptitude ranked second, and the opportunity to make money and earn a good living third, as reasons for choosing occupations. The high rank of aptitude has an implication for guidance, although the frequency with which aptitude was mentioned as the reason for the choices was small. The high rank of this item indicates that pupils are beginning to take account of their capacities in considering

TABLE IV  
DISTRIBUTION OF REASONS GIVEN BY 870 NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL  
BOYS FOR THEIR OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES

REASON	FREQUENCY OF MENTION IN GRADE				ALL GRADES	
	IX	X	XI	XII	Frequency	Per Cent
Interest in the work (like it)	152	73	116	134	475	49.7
Aptitude (fitness).....	36	36	81	41	194	20.3
Money (good living).....	55	26	21	18	120	12.5
Uncrowded, new field.....	13	13	16	17	59	6.2
Experience in the field.....	0	7	0	18	25	2.6
Ambition.....	0	6	2	17	25	2.6
Opportunity for service.....	6	8	5	4	23	2.4
Parents' desire.....	6	5	2	3	16	1.7
Happiness.....	6	3	5	1	15	1.6
Health.....	0	0	0	2	2	0.2
Guidance.....	0	0	0	2	2	0.2
Total.....	274	177	248	257	956	100.0

occupational choices. Opportunity for service received but small recognition; yet it is usually considered one of the primary motives in the choice of an occupation. Parental desire ranked low as a motive for vocational choice. The reasons given in this study indicate that the pupils were actuated by general impression or interest in an occupation. It would seem desirable to stimulate consideration of fitness for the work and of the social values of a vocation.

*Agencies influencing pupils.*—Although it is impossible for a person to determine all the influences leading to a decision, it is interesting to note the agencies that influenced these pupils in their choice of occupations, which are shown in Table V. Among the ten sources

of influence, school activities ranked first and parents second. The data indicate that the school is playing a large part, directly or indirectly, in shaping the occupational choices of its pupils.

#### GENERAL SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. A total of 1,081 pupils, or 86.6 per cent of the group of 1,248 negro high-school pupils, expressed their intention of finishing high school, and 867, or 69.5 per cent, expected to attend college.

TABLE V

DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCIES INFLUENCING 870 NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS  
IN THEIR OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES

SOURCE OF INFLUENCE	FREQUENCY OF MENTION IN GRADE				ALL GRADES	
	IX	X	XI	XII	Frequency	Per Cent
School activities.....	71	72	71	81	295	26.4
Parents.....	19	88	89	88	284	25.5
Teachers.....	55	38	47	71	211	18.9
None.....	65	49	53	42	209	18.7
Friends.....	37	10	24	16	87	7.8
Relatives.....	2	4	6	1	13	1.2
Successful men.....	0	3	2	2	7	.6
Y.M.C.A.....	0	0	2	2	4	.4
Church.....	0	0	1	1	2	.2
Guidance activities.....	0	0	1	1	2	.2
Reading.....	0	0	0	1	1	0.1
Total.....	249	264	296	306	1,115	100.0

2. Eight hundred and seventy pupils had made definite occupational choices. The choices were mainly in the professional fields, three-fourths of the pupils making choices in these fields.

3. Eleven reasons were given for the occupational choices of the pupils. The following four reasons were mentioned most frequently: (1) interest or liking for an occupation, (2) aptitude or fitness for the occupation, (3) opportunity to earn good money or a good living, and (4) desire to enter an uncrowded or a new field.

4. The agencies influencing the occupational choices of the pupils were more important than their reasons for choosing the occupations. Ten agencies had influenced these pupils, the most important of which were (1) school activities, (2) parents' desires, (3) teachers, and (4) friends.



5. The fact that the occupations of the fathers were not chosen by the sons indicates that parental influence ranked low as an agency in forming the pupils' occupational choices. The fathers were chiefly engaged in skilled work, domestic and personal service, and unskilled occupations. More than 80 per cent of the fathers were engaged in these occupations, but only 16 per cent of the sons chose occupations in these fields. Three-fourths of the sons' chosen occupations were in the professional fields, but only 12 per cent of the fathers were engaged in these fields. This relation indicates that consideration of social status operated in the pupils' choices.

6. The number of negro pupils who are entering the professional fields and who continue to make choices in the professional fields presents a real challenge to the schools. The fields of the occupations chosen show that there is a real need for guidance in the twelve schools studied. Occupational information should be given in the schools through the medium of books and directed reading in order that the pupils may be given broader conceptions of occupations.

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## THE SIGNIFICANCE FOR EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE OF PERSONAL HISTORIES

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### DEVELOPMENT OF GUIDANCE TOOLS

In their attempts to advise students about educational plans, guidance workers search diligently for facts, tools, and techniques which will serve a function analogous to that served by the stethoscope and the clinical thermometer for the medical practitioner. Thus far this search for dependable tools of diagnosis and prediction has been confined almost exclusively to the field of tests—tests of intelligence, aptitude, achievement, and personality. The large amount of data available for guidance in case histories has been collected in anecdotal form and used unsystematically. Obviously, the validity of personal-history data should be determined by statistical as well as clinical analysis. Harris' study<sup>1</sup> illustrates the method to be used if guidance workers are to know to what extent occupation of the father, for example, affords a dependable prediction of the son's school marks.

Three steps are necessary in a scientific analysis of personal data. First, general intelligence must be eliminated as the underlying cause of any predictive value possessed by personal-history data. For example, it is an established fact that *to a certain extent* the intelligence of the father determines his occupational level and also the school marks of the son. When using father's occupation as a basis for guidance, one must recognize that one is using a gross and crude index of intelligence. Harris is the only worker who controlled this indirect determiner of the significance of personal data. Second, a separate study must be made of each question or item in the pupil's personal history. Third, the value of such items must be verified by

<sup>1</sup> Daniel Harris, *The Relation to College Grades of Some Factors Other than Intelligence*, Archives of Psychology, Vol. XX, No. 131. New York: Columbia University, 1931.

applying the statistical weights derived from one group to a new or different group. This last point is illustrated by Goldsmith's early investigation of the selection of salesmen.<sup>1</sup>

Such a scientific investigation of pupil records, questionnaires, and case histories must be made if the guidance worker is to know what data can be relied on as a basis for educational guidance. It is only by the method of experimental and statistical analysis that dependable tools of guidance will be developed.

#### PROCEDURES OF THIS STUDY

The investigation reported in this article uses the general method of Goldsmith. The extent to which questions and items in the personal-history information section of the 1924 Minnesota College Aptitude Test differentiate between "good" and "poor" scholarship was determined statistically by the following method. Only those Freshmen in the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts who entered college without advanced standing in September, 1924, and who were graduated from high schools in Minneapolis or St. Paul were used. The purpose of the investigation was to determine whether the prediction of college scholarship could be increased beyond the results obtained from the use of high-school scholarship rank and the college-aptitude test by use of certain personal-history data. As it was found in a preliminary investigation that men and women were significantly different with regard to many personal-history items, a separate analysis was made for men and for women.

Men and women were divided into two groups each, the highest fourth and the lowest fourth in scholarship (honor-point ratio) in the autumn quarter. Complete scholarship data were available for 300 men and 287 women. Since one-fourth of three hundred is seventy-five, there should be seventy-five "good" and seventy-five "poor" scholars, but the honor-point ratios were actually distributed in such a way that it was necessary to use groups of ninety-two and seventy-eight, respectively. The first quartile was  $+0.097$  and, theoretically, provided the distribution is normal, there should be seventy-five men below this point. Actually, there were ninety-two men below this quartile. Furthermore, it would have been impossible to select, as

<sup>1</sup> Dorothy B. Goldsmith, "The Use of Personal History Blanks as a Salesmanship Test," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, VI (June, 1922), 149-55.

an alternative, all cases in the class interval in which the first quartile was found. Only nineteen men of the next higher interval were needed, but there were actually thirty-six men who had an honor-point ratio of 0.0. As it was necessary to take all these thirty-six cases, a total of ninety-two men were used. In other words, the cases were not distributed normally over the interval 0.0-0.2. In like manner there were actually seventy-eight men above the third quartile. Therefore, "poor" scholars are defined as the ninety-two men below the first quartile; "good" scholars, as the seventy-eight men above the third quartile. It is unfortunate that the two groups were not equal in number, but, since it is the percentages that are important, this point should not invalidate the study. A similar situation made it necessary to select eighty-nine women for the "good" scholarship group and seventy-six for the "poor" scholarship group. All percentages of "good" and "poor" groups and the probable error of the differences in percentages were based on the actual numbers of cases in the highest and the lowest groups. The differential value of each

item was computed by the formula  $\epsilon^2 = \frac{P_1 Q_1}{N_1} + \frac{P_2 Q_2}{N_2}$ . The use of this

formula is explained by Freyd.<sup>1</sup> The difference between the percentage of the highest group and that of the lowest group is divided by  $\epsilon$  to obtain a numerical value of the item. These differential values may be interpreted in terms of the chances in a hundred that the obtained differences between the two groups are the true differences and will be found when similar groups are compared in a similar manner. On the basis of this differential, one may predict, with a given degree of accuracy, the scholastic performance of individuals with personal-history data similar to the data secured for the group on which this analysis is based.

There were 483 items in these personal-history data which significantly differentiated between the lower and the upper scholarship groups. Two hundred and fifty-one differentials were positive (that is, they signified that a particular item was more characteristic of the upper group than of the lower), 225 favored the lower group, and 7 differentials were zero in value.

<sup>1</sup> Max Freyd, "A Method for the Study of Vocational Interests," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, VI (September, 1922), 243-54.

## DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HIGHEST AND LOWEST MEN

Briefly characterized as a group, the highest-scholarship men were sixteen or seventeen years of age; were more frequently of Jewish religion than the men in the lowest group; had fathers with four years of college who were engaged in semi-professional occupations; had one older brother or sister with two years of college education; disliked high-school social science, music, and art courses; had participated in four high-school activities, one of which was debating; and had held two offices in high-school activities. The lowest scholarship group, on the other hand, had older brothers and sisters with one year only of high-school education; were more likely to have been graduated from one particular Minneapolis high school; had a dislike of mathematics in high school; had participated in no high-school activities, or at least had recorded none in the personal-history information section; had held no high-school activity offices; and, finally, had some form of athletics or sports as a hobby.

## DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HIGHEST AND LOWEST WOMEN

The highest scholarship group of women had a preponderance of young students, sixteen or seventeen years of age, and it had more members who had been graduated from one or two particular high schools than the lowest scholarship group. The mother of the typical member was in some professional occupation, in most cases teaching. The typical group member had no older brothers and sisters; liked languages and disliked sciences and social sciences in high school; participated in five high-school activities, particularly in class activities; held offices in dramatic and club organizations; and had selected for her lifework some one of the semi-professions. The lowest scholarship group was composed of members a little older, who were born in cities with populations of between 2,500 and 4,999; whose fathers were born in a foreign country and had only a business-college education; and who had one older brother or sister with four years of high-school education. These lowest-scholarship students either liked industrial subjects in high school or recorded no dislikes. They took part in only one high-school activity and held no high-school office. They recorded "no hobbies" more frequently than did the upper group and reported that they read world-news magazines.

Many of them preferred to enter vocations of a skilled or a commercial nature.

One must be cautious in interpreting the data characterizing the highest and the lowest scholarship groups. In many cases the large differentials result from the fact that none of the other group recorded similar replies. Such differentials may be due to the particular sampling of students. Furthermore, these data permit characterization of groups and should be used with caution in describing particular individuals, especially individuals other than those included in this study. Generalizations from these results to describe other students can be made only in terms of the probabilities that an individual with similar characteristics will be found, at the end of his first quarter in college, in the highest or the lowest scholarship group.

#### APPLYING THE RESULTS TO ANOTHER GROUP

The next step is to validate these data by applying them to another group of college Freshmen in order to determine whether they are useful in the prediction of scholarship. Ninety-two differentials having a value of 1.0 or more for 1924 men were selected for a scoring key. Forty-six of these ninety-two items favored the upper group and were given a scoring value of +1.0; forty-six favored the lower scholarship group and were given a value of -1.0. The various data might have been given a scoring weight in terms of the size of their differential, but such a procedure involves additional labor and adds but little to the results.<sup>1</sup>

One hundred and sixty-three Freshmen entering the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts in 1926, who had graduated from Minneapolis or St. Paul high schools were selected for the validation of the men's scoring key. These subjects included all the Twin City Freshmen men for whom complete data were available, including personal-history data, score on the Minnesota College Aptitude Test, high-school scholarship rank, and scholarship mark for the autumn quarter. Two statistical clerks went through the personal-history information section of each test, one calling off the student's record and the other giving it a score value of +1 or -1, as the key

<sup>1</sup> Max Freyd, *op. cit.*, p. 249.

indicated. The algebraic sum of these scores gives for each student a total score on his personal history. These total scores were correlated with the student's percentile rank on the Minnesota College Aptitude Test, his percentile rank in high-school scholarship, and his honor-point ratio in the autumn quarter. These correlations, together with the various partial and multiple coefficients of correlation, are given in Table I for men.

TABLE I

INTERCORRELATIONS OF SCORES ON PERSONAL-HISTORY DATA, MINNESOTA COLLEGE APTITUDE TEST, HIGH-SCHOOL SCHOLARSHIP, AND SCHOLARSHIP IN AUTUMN QUARTER FOR 163 FRESHMEN MEN ENTERING COLLEGE IN 1926

ZERO-ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS		PARTIAL-CORRELA- TION COEFFICIENTS OF FIRST ORDER		PARTIAL-CORRELA- TION COEFFICIENTS OF SECOND ORDER		MULTIPLE- CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS	
Variables	Value	Variables	Value	Variables	Value	Variables	Value
12	.24	12.3	.23	12.34	.23	$R_4(123)$	.71
		12.4	.23				
		13.2	-.04				
13	.08	13.4	.04	13.24	-.02	$R_4(23)$	.71
		14.2	-.04				
14	.08	14.3	.04	14.23	-.02		
		23.1	.46				
23	.46	23.4	.21	23.14	.21		
		24.1	.48				
24	.48	24.3	.26	24.13	.26		
		34.1	.68				
34	.68	34.2	.59	34.12	.59		

1. Total score in personal-history data (Mean=3.31. S.D.=4.17).

2. Percentile rank on Minnesota College Aptitude Test (Mean=58.15. S.D.=30.25).

3. Percentile rank in high-school scholarship (Mean=57.05. S.D.=27.60).

4. Honor-point ratio in autumn quarter (Mean=0.75. S.D.=0.91).

#### CORRELATIONAL ANALYSES OF THE RESULTS

The correlation between the Minnesota College Aptitude Test and autumn-quarter scholarship for these 163 Freshmen men is +.48; between high-school scholarship and college scholarship the correlation is +.68. But the total score on the personal-history data correlates only +.24 with the College Aptitude Test, +.08 with high-school scholarship, and +.08 with honor-point ratio for the autumn quarter. As measured by these coefficients of correlation, these scores on the personal-history data apparently are not significantly



related either to college aptitude or to scholarship. Perhaps some obscure factor is masking this relationship—some factor which may be eliminated by use of partial correlations. That such is not the case is shown by the partial-correlation coefficients of the first order. A marked decrease from  $+.48$  to  $+.26$  is found in the correlation between the College Aptitude Test and honor-point ratio when high-school scholarship is controlled. However, the relation between high-school scholarship and college scholarship drops only from  $.68$  to  $.59$  when the College Aptitude Score is held constant by this method. Similar trends are discovered when partial coefficients of the second order, keeping constant two factors at the same time, are employed. The relation between total scores on the personal-history data and the other factors are influenced only to a slight degree by the elimination of any two other factors. As in the case of the first-order coefficients, the elimination of either the College Aptitude Test or high-school scholarship from any of these relationships brings about a decrease in the coefficients, this decrease being most marked when high-school scholarship is held constant in combination with any other of the factors. Apparently, the scores assigned to these 1926-27 Freshmen men on the basis of their personal-history data have but little relation with scholarship or any other factor measured in this study. This same situation is shown by the multiple-correlation coefficient of  $+.71$  between honor-point ratio and what is unique in the personal-history data, rank on the College Aptitude Test, and high-school rank. This coefficient is the same as the multiple coefficient between honor-point ratio and the combination of high-school scholarship and College Aptitude Test.

Table II gives similar coefficients of correlation for 106 Freshmen women entering college in 1926-27. The total scores based on the personal-history data were secured in the same way as were those for the men. These total scores on personal-history data have a correlation of  $+.34$  with the College Aptitude Test,  $-.02$  with high-school scholarship, and  $+.05$  with honor-point ratio in the autumn quarter. These coefficients are about the same as the corresponding coefficients for men. With one exception, the partial coefficients of the first and second order for women show that, when the College Aptitude Test or high-school scholarship is held constant in any coefficient with honor-

point ratio, there is a marked decrease in the magnitude of that coefficient. When personal-data score is held constant, the size of the coefficient is not affected to any appreciable extent. The multiple coefficients show that the effect of combining the personal-data scores with the College Aptitude Test and high-school scholarship in the prediction of college scholarship adds nothing to that prediction over and above the value of the test and high-school scholarship. In fact,

TABLE II

INTERCORRELATIONS OF SCORES ON PERSONAL-HISTORY DATA, MINNESOTA COLLEGE APTITUDE TEST, HIGH-SCHOOL SCHOLARSHIP, AND SCHOLARSHIP IN AUTUMN QUARTER FOR 106 FRESHMEN WOMEN ENTERING COLLEGE IN 1926

ZERO-ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS		PARTIAL-CORRELA- TION COEFFICIENTS OF FIRST ORDER		PARTIAL-CORRELA- TION COEFFICIENTS OF SECOND ORDER		MULTIPLE- CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS	
Variables	Value	Variables	Value	Variables	Value	Variables	Value
		12.3	.36				
12	.34	12.4	.37	12.34	.37	$R_4(123)$	.67
		13.2	— .14				
13	— .02	13.4	— .05	13.24	— .07	$R_4(23)$	.66
		14.2	— .17				
14	.05	14.3	.07	14.23	— .12		
		23.1	.34				
23	.31	23.4	.03	23.14	.06		
		24.1	.56				
24	.54	24.3	.47	24.13	.48		
		34.1	.53				
34	.53	34.2	.45	34.12	.44		

1. Total score in personal-history data (Mean=4.32. S.D.=4.22).

2. Percentile rank on Minnesota College Aptitude Test (Mean=58.55. S.D.=26.25).

3. Percentile rank in high-school scholarship (Mean=69.70. S.D.=26.05).

4. Honor-point ratio in autumn quarter (Mean=0.98. S.D.=0.95).

the only factor with which these personal-data scores are significantly related is the College Aptitude Test. The probable reason for this latter relation lies in the fact that such items as parents, education, and occupation enter into the personal-data scores, and these factors are known to have a positive relation with intelligence. However, the inclusion of these factors adds nothing to the prediction of honor-point ratio beyond that given by high-school rank and the College Aptitude Test.

## INTERPRETATION

One or more of several conditions may be producing this insignificant relation between the total scores on the personal-history data and college scholarship.

First, there may be nothing unique in these personal data which is inherently related to scholarship. In fact, these data correlate higher with the Minnesota College Aptitude Test than with anything else. If these personal-history data were only a crude indication of the intellectual status of these students, one would not expect to add materially to the prediction of scholarship.

A second possible explanation for the low correlations of personal-data scores with scholarship lies in the reliability or the accuracy of the information which students give regarding their personal history. No doubt, the ages in years given by the students are accurate, but one well may wonder whether college Freshmen accurately remember the activities and offices in which they participated in high school. Students' reports of the education of father and mother are additional items the accuracy of which is questionable. However, if these data were highly inaccurate, one would expect that the correlations would fluctuate instead of being consistently low.

A third possible explanation of these low relationships lies in the difficulty of applying to one group of Freshmen the results obtained from those of a previous group. Such a procedure is a severe, although necessary, test of the significance of these data. It is conceivable that the personal-history items which may actually characterize and differentiate between upper and lower scholarship groups in one Freshman class may not serve to differentiate another Freshman class because of changes in the criterion of marks. Moreover, the number of students on which these differentials were determined is too small to eliminate the possibility of the influence of chance selection of students.

All these possible explanations have been presented for the sake of completeness. By far the simpler and the more reasonable assumption is that these various personal-history items are crude indicators of what is measured in a more refined way by the Minnesota College Aptitude Test and high-school scholarship, namely, academic aptitude. If such a theory be true, one would not expect any significant improvement in the prediction of college scholarship by their use.

## CONSTRUCTION AND SCORING OF THE CONTINUITY OR REARRANGEMENT TEST

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The present investigation was undertaken (1) to study the effect of placing the various items in a continuity test at different distances from their correct positions, (2) to evaluate methods of scoring this type of test, and (3) to compare the time required for scoring by the various methods.

### PREVIOUS STUDIES

One of the first methods used for scoring the continuity test was merely to count the number of individual items that were placed in their correct positions. In 1926 Wilson (7) suggested that such tests be scored by subtracting the position assigned by a pupil to each item from the correct position whenever the latter is the larger, adding the differences so obtained, and subtracting their sum from the largest possible sum of the differences. Sangren and Woody (6) in 1927 and Odell (4) in 1928 suggested the use of similar methods. In 1929 Nesmith (3) suggested a plan of scoring which requires a comparison of the number given each item by the pupil with the item which should have a number just one less, one point of credit being given for each case in which the former number is greater than the latter. Wilson (8) in 1930 proposed a method in which the pupil's markings are transposed in such a manner that they correspond with a key which places the items of the test in correct sequence. The figure 1 in the pupil's marking is crossed out, and the number of items below it are counted. Then the pupil's figure 2 is crossed out, and the number of items below it not previously crossed out are counted. When all the items of the test have been crossed out, the figures resulting from the various counts are added in order to secure the pupil's score. Later in the same year Cureton and Dunlap (1) and John (2) suggested as a scoring method the computation of the

rank-difference coefficient of correlation ( $\rho$ ). Cureton and Dunlap provided a formula and nomograph by means of which " $\rho$  scores" ranging from 0 to 100 could be obtained instead of the usual coefficients ranging from  $-1.00$  to  $+1.00$ . John, using the rank-difference coefficient of correlation as a criterion, evaluated the methods of Nesmith, Sangren and Woody, and the second method proposed by Wilson in an attempt to find a method suitable for classroom use. Odell (5) gave a test consisting of seventy items (eight series of five items each and three series of ten items each) to a group of sixty university students. The papers were scored by all the methods so far discussed, as well as by the number of whole series correct and the  $R$  method of rank correlation (the Spearman footrule method). The various methods were validated, both the  $\rho$  method and the  $R$  method being used as criteria. The reliability of each of the various methods was calculated, and a record was made of the number of elements scored a minute by each method. Considering all the evidence, Odell concluded that the single-items-correct method, Sangren and Woody's method, Wilson's first method, Odell's method, and the  $R$  method of rank correlation are all of about equal merit and are fairly satisfactory methods of scoring.

#### PRESENT STUDY

The tests used in the present study consisted of thirty items drawn from American history and arranged in four series, Series I and IV containing ten items each and Series II and III containing five items each. Three forms of each series of items in the test were constructed. The items used in the three forms of a given series were identical, but each item was so placed as to be a different number of steps away from its correct position in the three forms. The arrangement of the ten items for the three forms of Series I is given in Table I. The other three series were constructed in a similar manner. Many of the items were placed relatively close to their correct positions because of the limited number of remote positions available. In a given ten-item series it is possible to have only two items nine steps from their correct positions, only four items eight steps from their correct positions, etc.

The test was given to 281 boys in the Junior class of a high school

in New York City. The three forms of the test were arranged in the sequence A, B, C, A, B, C, A, B, and so on, and were distributed in that order. Form A was given to 94 subjects, Form B to 94 others, and Form C to the remaining 93. No time limit was set for the completion of the test. Because of faulty or ambiguous marking on the part of some pupils, it was necessary to discard a few tests of each form.

The percentages of correct responses for the individual items when placed various distances from their correct positions are shown in Table II. Table I shows that Item A was placed in its correct posi-

TABLE I  
NUMBER OF STEPS EACH ITEM WAS PLACED AWAY  
FROM ITS CORRECT POSITION IN  
EACH FORM OF SERIES I

Item	Form A	Form B	Form C
A.....	0	4	9
B.....	5	0	1
C.....	1	3	6
D.....	2	5	0
E.....	0	9	5
F.....	1	2	4
G.....	4	6	1
H.....	2	1	4
I.....	7	5	2
J.....	5	2	0

tion on Form A, four steps from its correct position on Form B, and nine steps from its correct position on Form C. Table II shows that Item A of Series I was correctly numbered by 49 per cent of the pupils when it was placed in its correct position, by 40 per cent of the pupils when placed four steps away from its correct position, and by 42 per cent of the pupils when placed nine steps away from its correct position. The average of these three percentages is given for each item. At the right of the table is given the average percentage of correct responses for each position. For example, 62 per cent of the responses on Items A, B, D, E, and J were correct when the items were in their correct positions in Series I, and 60 per cent of the responses on Items B, D, E, I, and J were correct when the items were placed five steps from their correct positions in the series.

The remaining sections of Table II giving data for Series II, III, and IV are read in the same manner. The average percentages of correct responses on the various items vary from 34 to 77 according to the

TABLE II  
PERCENTAGE OF CORRECT RESPONSES FOR CONTINUITY-TEST ITEMS  
WHEN PLACED VARIOUS DISTANCES FROM CORRECT POSITION

NUMBER OF STEPS AWAY FROM CORRECT POSITION	PERCENTAGE OF CORRECT RESPONSES FOR ITEM										Average for Position
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	
Series I (265 pupils):											
0.....	49	76		41	70					72	62
1.....		82	59			26	49	72			58
2.....				44		39		67	44	70	53
3.....			57								57
4.....	40					38	41	77			49
5.....		73		38	65				40	86	60
6.....			58				41				50
7.....									40		40
8.....											
9.....	42				66						54
Average for item.....	44	77	58	41	67	34	44	72	41	76	.....
Series II (261 pupils):											
0.....	72	64	58	67	70						66
1.....	63		58		67						63
2.....	67	63		82							71
3.....		65	62	60							62
4.....					84						84
Average for item.....	67	64	59	70	74						.....
Series III (252 pupils):											
0.....	59	37	52	43							48
1.....		35			36						36
2.....	51	43	51	33	46						45
3.....			41	37	49						42
4.....	52										52
Average for item.....	54	38	48	38	44						.....



TABLE II—Continued

NUMBER OF STEPS AWAY FROM CORRECT POSITION	PERCENTAGE OF CORRECT RESPONSES FOR ITEM										Average for Position
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	
Series IV (251 pupils):											
0.....						61	53		54	69	59
1.....		72	74	55	58			58			63
2.....		65		60			65		72		66
3.....	33			55	58		48	58			50
4.....		69			47	44		52		72	57
5.....									60		60
6.....	43		64								54
7.....											
8.....	33		71								52
9.....						59				82	71
Average for item.....	36	69	70	57	54	55	55	56	62	74	.....

difficulty of the items. The percentages for any item in the three positions, however, reveal that there is no consistent tendency for the percentage of correct responses to decrease as the distance of the item from its correct position increases. It will also be noted that, when the items are presented in their correct positions, there is no consistent tendency for the pupils to be more successful.

The test was scored by three methods: (1) the single-items-correct method; (2) the Odell method, in which the differences between a pupil's numbers and the correct numbers are found, summed, and subtracted from the largest possible sum of such differences; and (3) the  $\rho$  method of rank correlation. The  $\rho$  method of rank correlation was selected as the criterion against which to compare the other methods because it most adequately represents the relation between the correct sequence and the pupil's marking and the other methods are admittedly time-saving approximations to it.

The means and the standard deviations of the scores yielded by each of the three methods of scoring are shown in Table III. The critical ratios found by dividing the differences between the means for the three forms of each series by the appropriate standard errors

of the differences are given in the three right-hand columns of Table III. Since none of these critical ratios is as great as 3.00 and only two of them are greater than 2.00, it is clear that the score is not significantly influenced by the position of the items in the test in any of the three methods of scoring. This fact may be seen in the extreme by comparing the mean scores for Form B of Series II, in which the items were presented in correct sequence, with the mean

TABLE III

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SCORES GIVEN BY THREE METHODS OF SCORING AND CRITICAL RATIOS BETWEEN FORMS

METHOD OF SCORING	FORM A		FORM B		FORM C		CRITICAL RATIO		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Forms A and B	Forms A and C	Forms B and C
Series I (265 pupils):									
Single-items-correct.....	5.3	2.7	5.6	3.0	5.8	2.6	0.71	1.25	0.47
Odell score.....	40.1	9.4	42.0	7.5	42.9	6.2	1.50	2.33	0.87
$\rho$ score.....	89.6	16.0	92.3	10.8	93.8	9.1	1.33	2.16	1.00
Series II (261 pupils):									
Single-items-correct.....	3.6	1.7	3.5	1.5	3.2	1.9	0.42	1.48	1.15
Odell score.....	10.3	2.1	10.2	2.0	9.8	2.5	0.32	1.43	1.18
$\rho$ score.....	94.3	8.0	94.3	9.7	92.0	10.6	0.00	1.61	1.49
Series III (252 pupils):									
Single-items-correct.....	2.5	1.6	2.1	1.4	2.1	1.5	1.74	1.67	0.00
Odell score.....	7.7	3.3	7.5	2.5	7.4	3.0	0.44	0.62	0.24
$\rho$ score.....	76.8	24.6	78.0	17.6	75.8	22.8	0.36	0.27	0.70
Series IV (251 pupils):									
Single-items-correct.....	6.0	2.5	5.6	2.6	6.0	3.1	1.00	0.00	0.91
Odell score.....	44.3	4.6	43.9	4.4	44.1	4.9	0.58	0.27	0.28
$\rho$ score.....	96.9	1.5	96.8	4.2	96.1	6.3	0.21	1.13	0.85

scores for Forms A and C of the same series, in which the items were arranged in mixed order. The mean scores on Form B are practically no larger than those on the other two forms of the same series.

The similarity of the means and the standard deviations in Table III seems to justify combining the results of Forms A, B, and C for further statistical treatment. From these data coefficients of correlation were obtained between the three methods of scoring for each series, for combinations of the two five-item series, the two ten-item series, and finally for the total score of all four series. The correla-

tions obtained between the Odell scores and the  $\rho$  scores ranged from .86 to .94. These are similar to the corresponding correlations obtained by Odell (5) but are lower than those obtained by John (2). The correlations obtained between the single-items-correct scores and the  $\rho$  scores were between .59 and .81—lower, on the average, than those obtained by Odell (5).

In Table IV are shown the number of items scored a minute by the single-items-correct method, by the Odell method, by the  $\rho$  rank-correlation method from tables constructed by the writer based on Cureton and Dunlap's formula, and by the  $\rho$  rank-correlation method using the nomograph presented by Cureton and Dunlap. In com-

TABLE IV  
TIME REQUIRED FOR SCORING BY VARIOUS METHODS

METHOD OF SCORING	NUMBER OF ITEMS SCORED A MINUTE		
	Ten-Item Series	Five-Item Series	Average
Single-items-correct.....	61	46	55
Odell score.....	35	31	31
$\rho$ score by writer's tables.....	22	20	21
$\rho$ score by nomograph.....	17	18	17

parison with these figures, Odell (5) reported the scoring of forty elements a minute by the single-items-correct method, twenty-two elements a minute by the Odell method, and eight elements a minute by the  $\rho$  rank-correlation method. The data in Table IV indicate that obtaining  $\rho$  scores from tables saves 23.5 per cent in scoring time over the Cureton-Dunlap nomograph method while retaining all the advantages of the  $\rho$  method.

#### SUMMARY

The evidence presented in this study shows that any random placement of the items would probably prove satisfactory in the construction of a continuity or rearrangement test. From Table II it is seen that there is no consistent tendency for the percentage of correct responses to a given item to decrease when the item in the test

is placed at greater distances from its correct position. The data in Table III indicate that the mean scores are not affected by the three random placements of the items in each of the four series no matter which method of scoring is used. Although the plan is not recommended, it seems probable that the score of the test will not be affected even if the elements are presented in their proper sequence. If the  $\rho$  method is used as a criterion, the Odell method is found to yield much more valid scores than the single-items-correct method. Obtaining the  $\rho$  score by means of tables is only slightly less rapid than the Odell method. As the Odell method correlates approximately .90 with the  $\rho$  score (the generally accepted criterion), that method or its equivalents may be used where reduction in scoring time is important. Because the correlations between the single-items-correct scores and the  $\rho$  scores were found to be as low as .59 and not greater than .81, the use of this method does not seem advisable.

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## SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

### I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

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This bibliography presents the first list of selected references in the fourth annual cycle of twenty lists covering practically the whole field of education which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The order of appearance of the lists in the cycle will be identical with that of former years.

The reader is reminded that the term "instruction" as here used comprehends curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement. Except for a few items which are more general as to level of application, the references pertain to secondary education beginning with the junior high school and extending through the junior-college period. The list includes, for the most part, materials published between November 1, 1934, and November 1, 1935.

#### CURRICULUM<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> See also Items 427 and 428 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1935, number of the *School Review* and Items 486 and 491 in the October, 1935, number of the *School Review*.

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The pros and cons of curriculum integration.
35. THOMAS, FRANK W., and OTHERS. "Shall There Be a Core Curriculum in Secondary Schools? A Symposium," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, X (February, 1935), 137-55.  
A symposium composed of the following articles: "What Is a Core Curriculum and Why?" by Frank W. Thomas; "A Core Curriculum for Secondary Schools," by George H. Merideth; "What Type of Core Curriculum Is Acceptable for Secondary Schools?" by Grayson N. Kefauver; "The Core Curriculum," by Helen Corliss Babson; "Shall We Have a Core Curriculum?" by L. A. Williams; and "Vita Nuova," by H. S. Upjohn.

36. TRILLINGHAM, CLINTON C. *The Organization and Administration of Curriculum Programs*. Southern California Education Monographs, 1933-34 Series, No. 4. Los Angeles, California: University of Southern California Press, 1934. Pp. xvi+200.

A study reporting results of an analysis of procedures followed by school systems in revising the curriculum.

37. VAN SLYCK, WILLARD N. "The Development of the High-School Curriculum in Three Large American Cities," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, No. 53, pp. 13-34. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1934.

Detailed analysis of the development of the high-school curriculum in three large American cities whose curriculums are representative of those employed in the secondary schools of the country.

38. WILLING, MATTHEW H. "Reports Relating to the General and Specialized Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary School Teachers: VI. Curriculum Trends in American Secondary Education," *North Central Association Quarterly*, X (October, 1935), 244-50.

According to the author, the major trends are (1) toward a more explicit social functionalism, (2) toward a more comprehensive social functionalism, (3) toward individualization, (4) toward integration, (5) toward utilizing the higher mental processes as compared with mere memorization, and (6) toward activism.

39. WRIGHT, EDITH A. *List of Courses of Study for Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1930-1935*. United States Office of Education Circular No. 139 (1935).

Tables 2 and 4 list the states and cities which have published new course outlines for high schools and give the year of publication, grades for which prepared, number of pages, and "Scope and Special Features."

#### METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION<sup>1</sup>

40. ALLEN, C. B. "Softness in High-School Supervision," *School Review*, XLIII (May, 1935), 350-56.

Sets aside a number of untenable assumptions favoring "softness" in supervision.

41. BARR, A. S. "Expressing the Scientific Spirit through Better Supervision," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX (September, 1935), 47-52.

An editorial on the principles controlling scientific supervision.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 364 in the list of selected references appearing in the May, 1935, number of the *School Review*, Item 408 in the June, 1935, number of the *School Review*, Item 559 in the December, 1935, number of the *School Review*, and Item 351 in the September, 1935, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

42. BARR, A. S., and REPPEN, NELS O. "The Attitude of Teachers toward Supervision," *Journal of Experimental Education*, III (June, 1935), 237-302.  
A questionnaire study of attitudes of teachers toward supervision, including teachers' opinions of supervisors and suggestions for improving supervision.
43. BELDEN, MABEL, and EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "The Improvement of College Teaching: The Lecture Method—Its Use and Abuse," *Junior College Journal*, V (January, 1935), 183-89.  
Presents quotations from various writers criticizing and upholding the lecture method and poses questions based on these quotations which are intended to aid the prospective or present instructor in analyzing successful and unsuccessful lectures and lecture methods.
44. BOSSING, NELSON L. *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935. Pp. xvi+704.  
A well-organized and well-written book in the field of general method, which on account of rapid development becomes increasingly difficult to treat in the scope of a single volume.
45. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "Supervision in Secondary Education," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, X (October, 1935), 80-84.  
An interesting analysis of the experiences with supervision reported by 116 teachers in 34 secondary schools in 18 states.
46. CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "A Supervisor's Check List of Criteria of a Skilfully Conducted Class Period," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XX (November, 1934), 578-82.  
A basic list of eleven questions to be employed in giving constructive criticism of classroom teaching.
47. DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Three Hundred Years of Method," *Proceedings of the Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 136-47. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 55. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1935.  
A summary of the history of methods of teaching from the period of the Latin grammar school to the present time.
48. *The Evolution of the Unit Method of Teaching*. Secondary Education in Virginia, No. 20. University of Virginia Record Extension Series, Vol. XIX, No. 3. Charlottesville, Virginia: Extension Division, University of Virginia, 1934. Pp. 48.  
Includes six papers dealing with the unit method of teaching, some in its general aspects and others in the subject fields of English, mathematics, and social science.

49. JACOBSEN, E. W. "The Improvement of Instruction in Secondary Schools," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, X (September, 1935), 49-51.  
A brief article outlining the steps in the plans for improving instruction in the Oakland, California, schools.
50. JONES, ARTHUR J. "The Unit of Learning," *Educational Outlook*, IX (November, 1934), 31-41.  
Discusses the current concepts of the learning unit and, in particular, the concept stressed by the Division of Secondary Education of the School of Education, University of Pennsylvania.
51. KILZER, L. R. "Some Devices for Use in Checking the Supervision of Study," *American School Board Journal*, XCI (August, 1935), 25.  
Describes four devices for use in supervising directed study in the high school.
52. MCCABE, MARTHA R., and JESSEN, CARL A. (Compilers). *Good References on Secondary Education—Supervision of Instruction and Study*. United States Office of Education Bibliography No. 20 (1934). Pp. 10.  
A short list of annotated references dealing with supervision of teaching and study.
53. MERRILL, DORIS P. "Panel Discussion in the High School," *Progressive Education*, XI (November, 1934), 423-25.  
Advocates the use of panel discussion in the high school and presents some fragmentary transcripts as illustrations.
54. MILLS, HENRY C. "Teachers' Attitudes towards the Study Habits of High School Students," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XX (November, 1934), 619-24.  
Describes a questionnaire study, conducted at the University of Buffalo in co-operation with the local high schools, of the study habits of high-school pupils, especially superior pupils.
55. MILLS, HENRY C., ECKERT, RUTH E., and WILLIAMS, MURIEL W. "Study Habits of High-School Pupils," *School Review*, XLII (December, 1934), 755-61.  
A comparison of study habits (ascertained by questionnaire) of pupils of high and low ability and of pupils who pursued and who did not pursue a how-to-study course.
56. POWERS, J. ORIN, and BLACK, FLORENCE MASSEY. "Exploring the Panel Method Scientifically," *Progressive Education*, XII (February, 1935), 85-88.  
Reports an experiment conducted to determine the measurable results of a panel discussion method of teaching compared with Morrison's unit method.

57. *Psychology and Methods in the High School and College*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. IV, No. 5. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1934. Pp. 445-564.  
A summary of literature published from January, 1931, to January, 1934, for each of a number of subject fields.
58. REEDER, C. W. "Study Habits," *School and Society*, XLII (September 21, 1935), 413-15.  
A study of the Wrenn Study-Habits Inventory administered to third-quarter Freshmen in the College of Commerce and Administration of the Ohio State University.
59. WOODRING, MAXIE NAVE, and FLEMMING, CECILE WHITE. *Directing Study of High School Pupils*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935 (revised). Pp. vi+254.  
A strengthened edition of a useful publication on supervision of study in the secondary school.
60. WOODRING, MAXIE NAVE, and FLEMMING, CECILE WHITE. "Recent Trends in Study," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVII (October, 1935), 27-49.  
An excellent brief presentation of the recent trends in the various divisions of the study field with annotated citations of articles bearing on each aspect. Is included in *Directing Study of High School Pupils* by the same authors (see Item 59).

MEASUREMENT<sup>1</sup>

61. DAVIS, H. McVEY. "The Use of State High School Examinations as an Instrument for Judging the Work of Teachers," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVI (January, 1935), 318-19.  
Cites the dangers in the use of state high-school examinations.
62. HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. "Exploring New Areas of Measurement," *Curriculum Journal*, VI (May 22, 1935), 22-25. Cleveland, Ohio: Society for Curriculum Study (% Western Reserve University).  
A consideration of assumptions on which new measurement in education must be based and of new forms of measurement.
63. LINCOLN, EDWARD A., and WORKMAN, LINWOOD L. *Testing and the Uses of Test Results*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. xii+318.  
A treatise on tests and testing suitable for use by the teacher.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 414 in the list of selected references appearing in the June, 1935, number of the *School Review*, Item 531 in the November, 1935, number of the *School Review*, and Item 365 in the September, 1935, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Proposals for remaking the secondary-school curriculum.*—A symposium on progressive curriculum practices in secondary schools has appeared.<sup>1</sup> This book deserves wide reading because it makes a distinct contribution to the literature of progressive education in general and to curriculum revision in particular. It is not necessary to agree entirely with the philosophy or viewpoint of the contributors to be stimulated to productive thinking by their various suggestions. The value of the suggestions is greatly enhanced by the fact that many of the writers are reporting experimental demonstrations in the field of curriculum revision in which they are at present engaged. While it is true that a number of these experiments are still in the incubation stage and cannot yet be said to constitute complete demonstrations of the theories which brought them into being, they do serve as strong challenges to the timid souls who are afraid to venture from the beaten track of traditional procedure in secondary-school administration.

Fourteen topics are treated in the book, three by the editor and eleven by other writers representing every section of the United States. Barely to mention the topics will give something of an idea of the scope and variety of the projects described or proposed. They are: "American High Schools Must Be Reconstructed," by Everett; "The Core-Curriculum Plan in a State Program," by Hall and Alexander; "New Schools for a New Day," by Featherstone; "Secondary Education as Orientation," by Thayer; "The Rural High School," by Wieting; "The Essentials for a Secondary School," by Lindquist; "A Program for American Youth," by Watson; "A Plan for the Junior College," by Merideth; "A High School for a Modern Age," by Mendenhall; "Reconstructing Secondary Education," by Wrinkle; "Social Direction for Education," by Cushman; "Modernizing the American High School," by Everett; "Education as a Community Function," by Koopman; "Analysis of the Plans," by Everett.

Space is available for comment on only a few of the many proposals for reform and revision. As Harap says in the Foreword, "The volume includes some plans conceived in the mind of the imaginative educational thinker; some plans superimposed by the student of society upon a shifting social scene; and some plans founded upon the vivid impressions of fresh and creative experience" (p. v). As

<sup>1</sup> *A Challenge to Secondary Education: Plans for the Reconstruction of the American High School.* Edited by Samuel Everett. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. viii+354. \$2.00.



belonging to the last-mentioned category the reviewer would classify the contribution of Hall and Alexander describing the Virginia program, that of Featherstone outlining the progress made in certain Los Angeles schools, Thayer's discussion of the Fieldston project, Wieting's chapter on the rural high school, Lindquist's chapter on "The Essentials for a Secondary School," Merideth's report on the Pasadena four-year junior college, and Wrinkle's description of the laboratory school of the Colorado State College of Education.

One hesitates to attempt a characterization of the other contributions because they run the gamut from practical suggestions based on sound experimentation to highly speculative imaginings based on wishful thinking. The general theme, however, is the socially-centered, as against the subject-centered, secondary school, and the suggestions, for the most part, have to do with plans for achieving this most desirable goal.

In his analysis of the plans Everett states that there is complete agreement that there should be thoroughgoing revision of every aspect of the American secondary school, that secondary education should be democratic, that it should meet the individual and the social needs of modern life, and that the reorganization of the curriculum should be functional rather than along lines of subject departments. He finds that the symposium writers differ widely on the question of whether a core curriculum shall be provided for all pupils or whether each pupil should follow his own individual interests; whether a clear-cut, well-delineated social outlook should dominate the new type of American high school; whether the American secondary school should or should not aim at the social reconstruction of American life; and, finally, whether the new secondary school should favor the active participation of secondary-school pupils in community life as a planned part of their education or whether they should be content with learning *about* life.

Since it is a foregone conclusion that there will be as wide differences of opinion among the readers of this book as the editor of the symposium and the reviewer have found among the offerings of the contributors, it is assured that a "good time will be had by all" who dip into its interesting pages.

WILLIAM MARTIN PROCTOR

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*The school broadens its rôle.*—The Inglis Lecture for 1935 represents the first pronouncement under these auspices by a man who has been identified primarily with private schools.<sup>1</sup> The trustees' choice of a speaker is well calculated to assist in promoting understanding between public and private schools, as Drury brings to his task a sympathetic appreciation of the problems confronting the public-school teacher and an emphasis on enduring values which should characterize secondary education in all schools.

The thesis which runs throughout the lecture will not be unfamiliar to those

<sup>1</sup> Samuel S. Drury, *The Care of the Pupil*. The Inglis Lecture, 1935. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1935. Pp. 72.

who have followed prevailing emphases in recent educational writings. It is, however, a thesis which needs emphatic reiteration, and its presentation in the present volume is refreshingly free from pedagogical platitudes. The point of view which the author develops in various of its implications is essentially that the task of the school is not merely or primarily intellectual but is nothing less than the responsibility for developing to the full the unique personal qualities of each child. "For the object of teaching is the pupil, whose care is the teacher's blessed concern. To believe that each pupil is a wondrous potential, possessed of rights and worthy of reverence, even though we cannot and ought not ever plumb another's abysmal depths, makes drudgery divine" (p. 6).

The author presents three questions which may be, in a sense, considered as measures of a school's efficiency. "We ask: What did you learn at school about citizenship? What ideas of propriety and beauty came to you there? What bridge did you lay at school between your lessons and God?" (P. 18.) Responsible citizenship, appreciation of beauty, and religion are presented as primary considerations in organizing the school. There follows a discussion of those qualities which are indispensable in the teacher: confident knowledge, enthusiasm, and a sharing of personality. Finally, the author discusses the rôle of physician, psychologist, and psychiatrist in carrying out the broad aims of education.

In contrasting the two types of school, private and public, the author characterizes the former as "Hebraic" in emphasis and the latter as "Hellenistic." The public school, he says, has stressed achievement and the private school, character. Like most generalizations, this statement seems subject to exceptions. Those of us who have taught in private schools under the shadow of College Entrance Examination Board examinations will recognize a stereotyped and formal academic emphasis there, while recent years have seen signal development in the consideration given in public schools to personal guidance and character education.

The value of this Inglis Lecture lies not so much in the comparison of public and private education as in the presentation of educational aims of universal significance. If religion be interpreted as a sympathetic recognition of abiding ethical values rather than in a narrow or limited sense, it has a very real place in the public school, and each of the ideals stressed by the author may well be made an aim of all education. In its consistent emphasis on the school's responsibility for the whole pupil and not merely for his intellectual growth, the Inglis Lecture of 1935 makes a contribution both significant and timely.

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

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*Helps for the teacher of modern language.*—Professor Oliver was a pioneer in providing the profession with the kind of information which packs this imposing volume.<sup>1</sup> His *Suggestions and References for Modern Language Teachers* (School

<sup>1</sup> Thomas Edward Oliver, *The Modern Language Teacher's Handbook*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. viii+706. \$3.60.

of Education Bulletin No. 12, University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XII, No. 12, 1914) was among the early compilations of its kind in this country. Since then the bibliographies of M. A. Buchanan and E. D. MacPhee (*An Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology*, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Vol. VIII. Toronto, Ontario: University of Toronto Press, 1928) and of Coleman and Jacques (*An Analytical Bibliography on Modern Language Teaching, 1927-1932*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933) have listed and summarized the more important books and articles of a strictly pedagogic nature to 1932; but the information presented in the present volume under such heads as "Almanacs," "Anecdotes," "Anthologies," "Art," "Associations," "Bibles," "Bibliographies," "Book-binding," "Book Clubs," "Book Dealers"—to list only a few of the rubrics—is collected nowhere else under one cover. Teachers wishing to gather material on "Christmas," "Clubs," "Commercial Manuals," "Contests for Prizes," "Copying Machine," "Cross-Word Puzzles," "Devices," "Dictionaries" (including those especially useful to motorists, aviators, and menu-writers), "Dolls," "Costumes," "Drill Books," and the like will find among the many thousands of entries in this book a host of useful and precise data which they would be baffled to find elsewhere. If they want to know about "Games," histories of foreign countries, "Illustrated Books," "Information Service," "International Languages," "Juvenile [Books]," "Lodgings Abroad," "Maps," "Newspapers," "Pads," "Periodicals" for teachers and students, "Phonograph and Phonograph Records," "Plays" [for foreign-language groups], "Posters," "Radio Broadcasting," "Realia," "Slang," "Slides," "Films," "Songs" (about 140 entries), "Steamship Travel," and "Study Abroad," Professor Oliver will not fail them. The gourmand will smack his lips at the entry "Sweets, Fruits, Etc.," and those eager for the road will consult profitably the categories "Guide-books," "Motoring Abroad," "Railways," "Touring," "Study Tours," and "Travel Books," while the misogynist will turn with haste to the entries "Woman" and "Women Students in Modern Languages."

To the reviewer the chief value of this compilation is illustrated by the headings enumerated in the preceding paragraph and by the copious lists under such categories as "Bibliographies," "Civilization," "Culture," "Linguistics," "Phonetics," and "Pronunciation" (about 300 entries), and "Survey Courses in Literature." The compiler has searched untiringly and has produced a work that is unrivaled as a repository of information of this sort. The library of every school and of most colleges in which modern languages are taught would be the more useful for possessing this volume.

On that point the reviewer is clear. At the same time, a number of queries presented themselves as he turned over the pages of the volume—and he could, of course, do little more than turn over the pages and note the items that arrested his attention. Why is there not at least an index of proper names and of the main headings with page references? Why do so many of the entries recur once, twice, even three times? To give only a few examples, a cross-refer-

ence by a number would have made it unnecessary to repeat information about the Institute of International Education (pp. 54-55, 202, 299, 319-20, 333, 634); one of G. M. Ruch's books on examinations is listed on pages 200 and 658 and another on pages 402 and 659; details about the Buchanan and MacPhee bibliography are found on pages 60, 357, and 402; and references to a pamphlet by de Sauzé are given on pages 99, 406, and 415. *Les faux amis ou les trahisons du vocabulaire* of Koessler and Derocquigny is listed on pages 105, 151, 192, and 671. There are at least two references, much alike in wording (pp. 106, 414), to the manifesto called "A Statement of Principles for the Integration of the Development of Modern Foreign Language Abilities versus the Basic Recommendation of the Coleman Report." The reviewer concludes that some simple mechanical device for cross-references would have materially reduced the volume in bulk and so made room for indexes, which would have been helpful to the user.

It is also open to question whether the editor gave sufficient thought to the classification of his material. Is there a real differentiation between "Civilization" (pp. 91-97) and "Culture" (pp. 131-38)? between "Direct Method," "Methods," and "Methodology"? between "Junior Year Abroad" (pp. 332-34), "Study Abroad" (pp. 623-30), and "Study Tours Abroad in the Summer" (pp. 630-32)? The task of determining main categories which are sufficiently precise and yet elastic and of grouping under them subheadings which really guide the reader presents genuine difficulties; but a closer analysis of relationships and of differences would have produced a more orderly, and hence a more usable, arrangement.

It is doubtful, furthermore, whether the compiler was wise in including in this work the items listed in the two bibliographies mentioned in the first paragraph of this review. For the user of the volume must either turn to those compilations for summaries of the books and articles in which he is interested, or he must go back to the sources, which few readers are able to secure. The case is arguable, however, for Professor Oliver may have had in mind the predicament of the school or the teacher possessing only a one-volume reference library. This quality of inclusiveness has resulted in the presence of many references of a highly specialized nature. Such items appear especially under the main headings "Linguistics," "Literary History," and "Phonetics." An example under the first rubric is Jaberg and Jud's, *Sprach- und Sachatlas Italiens*; under the second, the *Histoire littéraire de la France*; under the third, the highly technical investigations of Parmenter and Treviño. Uninitiated readers may well be puzzled to distinguish such items from others, and specialists will hardly refer to a volume like this for references in their own field. If the editor was convinced of the wisdom of including such items—and this point too is arguable—it would have been well, as also in the case of "Periodicals" (especially those listed on pages 461-67), to differentiate between what is primarily useful to the scholar and what will serve teachers at the secondary-school and the college levels.

On the other hand, the reader may wonder at the inclusion of certain entries, such as "Alsace-Lorraine" (p. 8), "Amana Society" (p. 13), "von Steuben" (p. 19), "Mottoes for Schools and Classrooms"—really a list of proverbs (pp. 427-29), "Félibrige" (p. 202), "Gardens" (p. 219), "Insurance for Teachers" (p. 320), and "Louisiana" (pp. 393-94, 23 entries).

It may seem ungrateful, after these remarks, to speak of omissions, but the reviewer did not find in the expected places references to the following: the chapter on objectives in *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States* (Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Vol. XII. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930); J. D. Deihl's article on modern languages in the junior high school (compare p. 563); Bobbitt's *How To Make a Curriculum* (compare p. 39); a clear-cut reference to the *Bibliographie de la France* and its scope (p. 61); Maigrion's *Le romantisme et la mode*; the study by Harry and Grace Kurz on cultural material in reading textbooks in French ("The Realia Found in French Readers Used in College Courses," *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 281-324. Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Vol. XVII. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930); Edgren and Burnet's French dictionary; Leopold Bahlsen's *The Teaching of Modern Languages* under "Direct Method" or "History of Modern Language Teaching" (but see p. 404); Michael West's *Language in Education* under "Reading" (but see pp. 356, 413); Franke's *Die praktische Spracherlernung, auf Grund der Psychologie und der Physiologie der Sprache dargestellt* (1884); Edward C. Armstrong's important article on adjective position in French ("The French Shifts in Adjective Position and Their English Equivalents," *Studies in Honor of A. Marshall Elliott*, I, 251-74. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1911); the *Cours de vacances* and *Cours de civilisation française* of the University of Paris. An entry on page 657 implies erroneously that the material utilized in Henmon's *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages* resulted from administrations of the "Henmon French Tests." Beardsley's article on the Spanish subjunctive on page 643 should be listed on page 632, as also the articles by Dale and by Graham (p. 644). Of the numerous new-type tests now available, Oliver lists only the French reading test by Broom-Brown (p. 572; compare Henmon's list in Coleman and Jacques' *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1927-1932*, which is referred to frequently in the present volume, for example, on page 441). The article by Percival M. Symonds, "A Foreign Language Prognosis Test" (*Teachers College Record*, XXXI [March, 1930], 540-56) is missing. The date of publication of certain entries is too often lacking: for example, two titles by Plattner (p. 229), one by Gamillscheg (p. 153), and several others under "Dictionaries."

In scanning the pages of the volume—and it goes without saying that an attentive reading of each entry is out of the question—the reviewer has taken note of only two mechanical errors: the inversion of a name (Valéry Larbaud, p. 359)

and the misspelling of *berceuses* (p. 603). Both the editor and the publisher are to be congratulated on the lack of mechanical errors.

The work is not without defects. A severer method would have reduced it in length and, at the same time, made certain of the entries more readily accessible. But its value is evident, and Professor Oliver, in carrying out this really enormous task, has again merited the gratitude of all prospective and active teachers of modern languages.

ALGERNON COLEMAN

*An investigation of the training of sponsors of pupil activities.*—Although it is widely admitted in educational circles that pupil activities constitute an important part of the program of modern junior and senior high schools, few facts have been available concerning the training of teachers for sponsoring such work. For this reason the profession will welcome the substantial contribution to the subject made by a recent monograph,<sup>1</sup> which consists, in large part, in a statistical survey of conditions and practices in such training in state teachers' colleges scattered throughout the country.

The material of the monograph is presented in five chapters. After defining the problem and the procedure in the first chapter, the author in the second chapter gives in tabular form the answers of 161 secondary-school principals in 45 states to a number of questions pertaining to the need of special training for sponsors of activities of various types. This information is supplemented with data from the placement bureaus of seventy-three teachers' colleges and from thirty-five teachers' agencies on the interest of employers in this phase of the training of teachers.

In chapter iii the number of pupil activities of different kinds in which teachers in training may have experience is given for a hundred teachers' colleges. There is given also the number of institutions offering course work on the subject or providing for experience in the supervision of activities of high-school pupils in training schools. Figures are presented in chapter iv on the extent of participation by teachers in training in the various types of activities in teachers' colleges, together with data on the discrepancies between the conditions reported and the recommendations made by high-school principals.

The final chapter outlines a program for training students in teachers' colleges for the supervision of pupil activities in high schools. This outline is offered by the author as a suggestion for the consideration of officers of teachers' colleges. The author worked out the program in detail after examining a large mass of material describing much of the best available practice.

Although only a minority of the teachers in secondary schools are trained in

<sup>1</sup> Eugene S. Briggs, *The Preparation of Secondary Teachers in Teachers Colleges for Guiding and Directing Extra-Class Activities*. Jefferson City, Missouri: State Department of Education, 1935. Pp. viii+116. \$0.85 (paper); \$1.15 (cloth).



state teachers' colleges, it is not improbable that the conditions reported in this investigation hold, in general, for other types of teacher-training institutions. For this reason attention to the facts presented in this monograph should be given by the leaders of all types of institutions who are aware of the importance of the work in extra-curriculum activities which their teachers in training will have to do.

PAUL W. TERRY

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*A practical interpretation of the processes of language teaching and learning.*—Professorial pedantry, known alike to students and publishers and frequently the cause of pointed comment by both, is an especially bedeviling influence in the writing of textbooks. Few authors have had the courage to write directly to their audiences. Ordinarily, the author of a treatise intended for study by college students writes with one eye on his primary objective group but with the other slyly cocked in the direction of his professional colleagues. The field of language, furthermore, is not one in which there has been any tendency to remedy this woeful condition. For this reason Professor Hagboldt richly merits double commendation for having turned out a volume<sup>1</sup> which, though small, is a gem of clarity and straightforwardness. Although respectably documented, the primary emphasis of the book is not on the presentation of a mass of undigested and diffuse experimental findings but rather on the interpretative discussion of such data in a way which is comprehensible at once to language students and the educated laity. There is so much to recommend the book from this standpoint that one is inclined to feel but slightly critical of those passages, such as occur profusely in chapter iv, where the author becomes blandly dogmatic.

The material of Professor Hagboldt's book is organized under three general heads.

The first part, "Basic Concepts and Problems of Language," defines and explains ideas and terminologies that have perplexed many young and not-so-young teachers. Among these we find "Sound," "The Word Image," "Analogy," "Direct and Indirect Processes of Association," "Integration," etc. Although making clear these many confusing terms, the author grants the impossibility of ever attaining mastery of foreign speech sounds. His point is certainly not, however, that they should be neglected; instead he emphasizes the value of phonetics because of the underlying principle that, as a person approximates mastery of a language, sound and idea become one.

The second division, "Psychological Principles," is a selective discourse that effectively brings well-known principles of learning before the attention of the language teacher. It is pointed out, for example, that the student must contribute interest and the will to master. Without these he can never be spoon-fed

<sup>1</sup> Peter Hagboldt, *Language Learning: Some Reflections from Teaching Experience*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. x+166. \$1.50.



a facility in any foreign language. The successful teacher, on the other hand, is able to stimulate and utilize attention and association and to plan for frequent repetition of work already learned. The difficulty that many students have with foreign-language study may often be analyzed by their teachers as the predominance of one of the various types of memory, and the descriptions of these types which are here presented should greatly assist in a diagnosis.

"Language in Function" is the subject of the third section of the book. It takes up the controversial issue of "the best" method and arrives at what is evidently the most sensible conclusion. The reader may feel here that he is on more familiar ground in the examination of the overt functions of reading, speaking, and writing a foreign language. Nevertheless, Hagboldt throws a new light on these widely discussed phenomena and leads to a more objective scrutiny of their development.

Besides being a professional aid to the teacher and prospective teacher, this little volume should assist the mature student to analyze his own adjustment to the foreign language and to discover the specific processes which in his case might more economically replace general study and drill toward the attainment of language mastery. On the whole, it bears repeating that this brief volume provides a convenient summary of the latest information concerning language instruction along with unusually lucid personal interpretations and comments, all of which together should make the book a professional necessity.

FRANCIS F. POWERS

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*The Constitution and education for citizenship.*—During the period of reconstruction and constitutional questioning after the close of the Civil War, there was in the schools a marked revival of instruction about the Constitution. In the years since the World War there have been repeated efforts by various pressure groups to increase the school's instruction about the Constitution. These efforts and the present importance of constitutional matters in relation to current legislation and to teachers' oaths give every indication of a revival in education about the Constitution in the years immediately before us. In the light of this situation, a recent volume dealing with the relation between the Constitution and civic education<sup>1</sup> is timely and significant.

The book is both a history of the Constitution in the curriculums of American schools and colleges and a recommendation for improved instructional treatment of the document. After a brief introduction setting forth the author's concept of the Constitution as a dynamic, growing thing, four lines of investigation are reported on. First, there is a brief review of the place of the Constitution in our national thinking and of the attitude of political scientists and of "civic educationists" (the author's own term) toward it. Second, the treatment

<sup>1</sup> H. Arnold Bennett, *The Constitution in School and College*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1935. Pp. 316. \$3.50.

accorded the Constitution in civics textbooks during the span of our national history is reviewed. The next chapter deals with the attempt in recent years to legislate the Constitution into the schools—an attempt that the author considers unwise and vain as to results. The fourth line of investigation is an analysis of selected courses of study and of examination questions in order to determine and evaluate present instruction on the Constitution. The last section of the volume presents the author's proposals for reform, involving both the curriculum and methods of teaching.

The author's point of view is succinctly and challengingly stated in the Introduction:

The Constitution should consciously be taught as an institution in process of growth or development. The student should learn how the various provisions of the original document have expanded through custom, statute, ordinance, judicial decision, and formal amendment. Nor is his instruction to stop here. He is also to consider by which of these methods further development may now be in order. There should result a greater measure of popular legal-mindedness, thereby preparing the way for more progressive, and yet more rational, political change [pp. 23-24].

With this point of view most teachers of civics may agree, but they will be disappointed that the author did not discuss more adequately the social limitations resulting from the antagonism of pressure groups to such a point of view in school instruction. The political and the historical analyses included in the volume are, for the most part, excellent, but the analyses of current courses of study and the discussion of tests on the Constitution are sketchy. Generally speaking, however, the author's findings are penetrating and illuminating, and the story of instruction on the Constitution is not flattering to educators nor to political scientists.

The volume is clearly written, amply documented, and its pages are filled with valuable side lights on the complexity of "education for citizenship." The Appendix contains type lessons, book lists, and other materials useful to teachers. Even though those interested in civic education may not be able to agree with the basic pattern of the author's program of recommendations, they will profit from a careful study of his point of view and his objectives, and they can utilize many of his data and specific suggestions. The book is unique and valuable as a type study of a single, significant aspect of the social-studies curriculum.

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HOWARD E. WILSON

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*A combination drillbook and handbook in English composition.*—The past decade has witnessed the production of a large number of drill pads and workbooks. In the main, handbooks and textbooks in English have not provided an adequate amount of suitable exercise material, particularly exercises to be consumed by the pupil in the course of instruction. Drill pads have met this need. Frequently, however, the use of pads has been ineffective because of their

failure to supply the necessary discussion and statement of principles of grammar and usage which the drills covered. A recent handbook<sup>1</sup> combines effectively the features of the usual handbook and of the drill pad.

The contents of the book, which consist in a thorough review of the fundamentals of oral and written composition, are well organized into ten blocks of five "units" each (the last block contains six units). The fifty-one units are summarized in a chart appearing at the beginning of the book for ready reference. The first sixty pages are devoted to a discussion of some general problems in the organization of ideas and to a rapid review of grammar. This introduction is followed by two blocks under the general caption "Improving the Sentence Patterns," in which clauses and phrases and unity and variety receive the major emphasis. The third major division of the book deals with "Clear Sentences and Punctuation," and attention is given to such problems as pronoun reference, dangling modifiers, parallel structure, and marks of punctuation. The next two blocks deal with spelling and diction, to which is given a more thorough treatment than is to be found in most handbooks. Forty-seven pages are devoted to the study of words. The last major division is entitled "Special Problems" and contains two blocks under the titles of "Manuscript, Letters, Outlines" and "Speaking and Reading." The last block contains a useful unit on "How To Use a Library."

Two unusual features of the book deserve mention. One of these is the use of a graphic device known as the "cross-out method." "A faulty sentence is printed, and a correction is handwritten directly upon it. Thus the emphasis falls on correct forms. The student never sees bad English except as crossed out and corrected in a way that is bold, decisive, memorable" (p. v). Another feature is the use of perforated pages for the drills and exercises. There are eighty full pages of such drills and exercises. The perforated sheets are scattered through the book, appropriate drills appearing at the close of each unit discussion. Thus, after the pupil has torn out and handed in the perforated drill sheets, he still has a useful handbook for ready reference.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

*The Academic and Professional Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers.* Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. VII. Compiled and edited by William S. Gray. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. x+234. \$2.00.

<sup>1</sup> Easley S. Jones, *Practice Handbook in English: A Drillbook and Review in the Essentials of Writing and Speaking.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. x+262. \$1.32.

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- HOLMES, PAULINE. *A Tercentenary History of the Boston Public Latin School, 1635-1935.* Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XXV. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1935. Pp. xxiv+542. \$3.50.
- LÉAUD, ALEXIS, and GLAY, EMILE. *L'École primaire en France: Ses origines—ses différents aspects au cours des siècles—ses luttes—ses victoires—sa mission dans la démocratie.* Vol. I, pp. 314; Vol. II, pp. 314. Paris: La Cité Française, 1934.
- NEWKIRK, LOUIS V., and GREENE, HARRY A. *Tests and Measurements in Industrial Education.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1935. Pp. x+254. \$2.75.
- OVERN, ALFRED VICTOR. *The Teacher in Modern Education: A Guide to Professional Problems and Administrative Responsibilities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. xiv+374. \$2.25.
- Professional Preparation.* Interpretations of Physical Education, Vol. V. Edited by Jay B. Nash. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. x+424. \$2.00.
- SMALLWOOD, MARY LOVETT. *An Historical Study of Examinations and Grading Systems in Early American Universities: A Critical Study of the Original Records of Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Mount Holyoke, and Michigan from Their Founding to 1900.* Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XXIV. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1935. Pp. xiv+132.
- WALLIN, J. E. WALLACE. *Personality Maladjustments and Mental Hygiene: A Textbook for Psychologists, Educators, Counselors, and Mental-Hygiene Workers.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. xii+512. \$3.00.
- WALTERS, J. E. *Individualizing Education: By Means of Applied Personnel Procedures.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1935. Pp. xiv+278. \$2.50.

#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BISHOP, MILDRED C., and ROBINSON, EDWARD K. *Map Exercises, Syllabus, and Notebook in Early European History: To 1714.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1935 (revised). Pp. 62. \$0.56.
- CLARK, FRANK JONES. *Guidance Working Materials for Junior and Senior High Schools: Manual of Practical Helps for Educators.* Seattle, Washington: Frank Jones Clark (Roosevelt High School), 1935. Pp. x+118. \$1.00.
- CRAWFORD, FINLA GOFF. *Our Government Today.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1935. Pp. viii+354. \$0.96.

- FREDERICK, ROBERT WENDELL, and SMITH, VIRGINIA BOSWELL. *Social Language: An Introductory Course for Foreign Language*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1935. Pp. xxii+204.
- GREGORY, C. A., and GREGORY, HELEN VIRGINIA. *Writers' Manual: A Guide for High School and College Students in the Mechanics of Writing*. Cincinnati, Ohio: C. A. Gregory Co. (345 Calhoun Street), 1935. Pp. vi+156.
- GREENFIELD, ERIC V. *A Brief Summary of French Grammar: With Exercises and Beginners' Vocabulary*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. vi+106. \$0.92.
- LABICHE and MARTIN. *La poudre aux yeux: Comédie en deux actes*. Edited by Magdalene L. Dale and John B. Dale. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. xii+178. \$0.68.
- LEE, ETTIE. *English for Today: Essential English Exercises for the Enrichment and Correctness of Speech and Writing*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. xvi+382. \$1.20.
- LOGSDON, MAYME I. *A Mathematician Explains*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. xii+176. \$1.50.
- MCCUE, GEORGE SUTHERLAND. *Youth's Tower of Prophecy: A Pageant for the Tercentenary of American Secondary Education*. Boulder, Colorado: University of Colorado, 1935. Pp. 24.
- PAHLOW, EDWIN W. *Directed Studies in Modern History To Accompany "Man's Achievement: II. The Age of Science and Democracy."* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1935. Pp. iv+104. \$0.48.
- A Practical Study of American Speeches*. Edited by Herald M. Doxsee. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1935. Pp. xiv+340. \$1.20.

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AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

- Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution for the Year Ending June 30, 1934*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935. Pp. xiv+448.
- Annual Report of the Rockefeller Foundation, 1934*. New York: Rockefeller Foundation (49 West Forty-ninth Street), 1935. Pp. xiv+408.
- BECKER, ELSA G. *Guidance at Work in a Large City High School*. The Second Annual Report of the Guidance Department of the Samuel J. Tilden High School, Brooklyn, New York, September, 1933-June, 1934. New York: High School Division, Board of Education (500 Park Avenue), 1935. Pp. xii+126.
- Behavior Problems in the Secondary Schools*. Summit, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association (Charles H. Beek, President, % Junior High School), 1935. Pp. 32.
- Better Citizenship: Report of the Conference Held at Connecticut College, May 16-17, 1935, on the Education of Women for Public Affairs*. New London, Connecticut: Connecticut College Bookshop, 1935. Pp. 94. \$0.50.

*Christian General Education: A Curriculum Study. The Report of a Committee Representing Midwestern Lutheran Colleges. Studies in Lutheran Higher Education, Vol. I, No. 2.* Minneapolis, Minnesota: Augsburg Publishing House, 1935. Pp. 88.

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Bulletin No. 6, 1935—*Fundamentals in the Education of Negroes.* Compiled and edited by Ambrose Caliver. Pp. vi+90.

Bulletin No. 7, 1935—*Co-ordination of Effort for the Education of Exceptional Children:* Report of a Conference Called by the U.S. Office of Education, compiled by Elise H. Martens. Pp. vi+82.

Bulletin No. 1, 1936—*Educational Directory, 1936.* Part II, City School Officers, pp. 28; Part IV, Educational Associations and Directories, pp. 64.

Civilian Conservation Corps Vocational Series—Outlines of Instruction for Educational Advisers and Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps: No. 4, *Carpentry*, pp. xii+72; No. 7, *Conservation of Natural Resources*, pp. xii+94; No. 9, *House Wiring*, pp. xii+58; No. 11, *Mechanical Drawing*, pp. xii+72; No. 12, *Photography*, pp. xii+72.

*The School Plant.* Review of Educational Research, Vol. V, No. 4. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1935. Pp. 333-400. \$1.00.

*Suggestions for Instruction concerning Alcohol, Tobacco, and Narcotics.* State Department of Education Bulletin No. 13. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1935. Pp. vi+34.

